

# Pattern Recognition Receptors

Seeing and responding to danger

Tom Monie

# Lecture overview

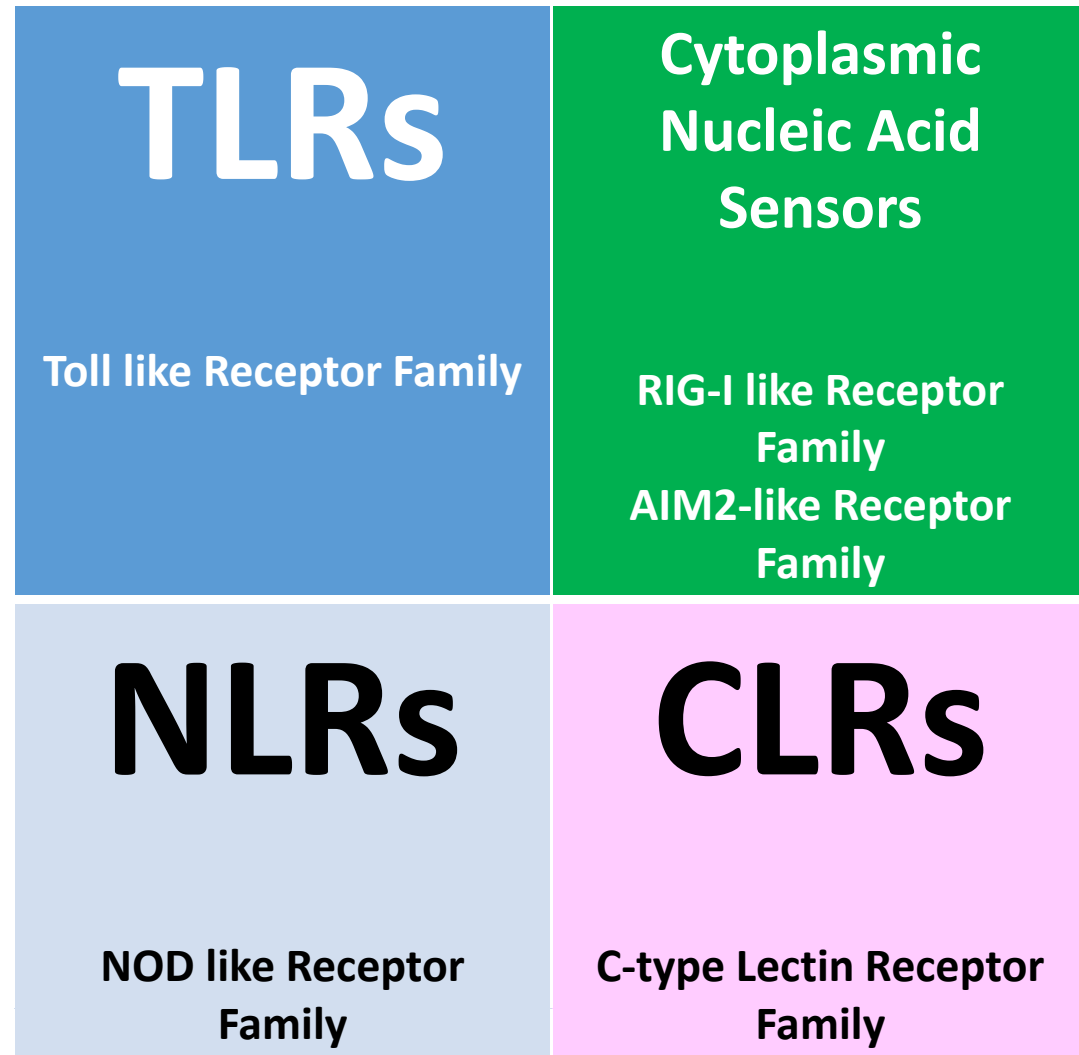
- PRR signalling pathways
  - Activation and signal transduction
- Ligand recognition by TLRs and NLRs
- Macromolecular signalling complexes
  - Myddosome and inflammasome
- Detection of LPS
  - cell surface versus cytoplasm
- PRRs and disease

# What is a PRR?

- A protein receptor that recognises molecules that indicate a potential danger to the cell.
- PRR activation leads to the initiation of a protective immune response
- PRR ligands can be derived from exogenous and endogenous sources

# PRR families

- **Pattern Recognition Receptors (PRRs)** act as sentinels for the detection of cellular danger.



PRRs also include proteins such as scavenger receptors, CD11b and CD14

# PRR ligands: primarily PAMPs, but an increasing number of DAMPs

- Bacterial cell wall components (lipopolysaccharide (LPS), bacterial lipoproteins, lipoteichoic acid (LTA), peptidoglycan, bacterial DNA other bacterial associated proteins)
- Viral constituents- primarily viral DNA and RNA
- Fungal cell wall components eg zymosan, fungal hyphae
- Some constituents of protozoa
- Helminth and other parasitic constituents??
- Apoptotic mammalian cells
- Putative endogenous ligands eg HSP60 (DAMPs)
- Auto-antigens?

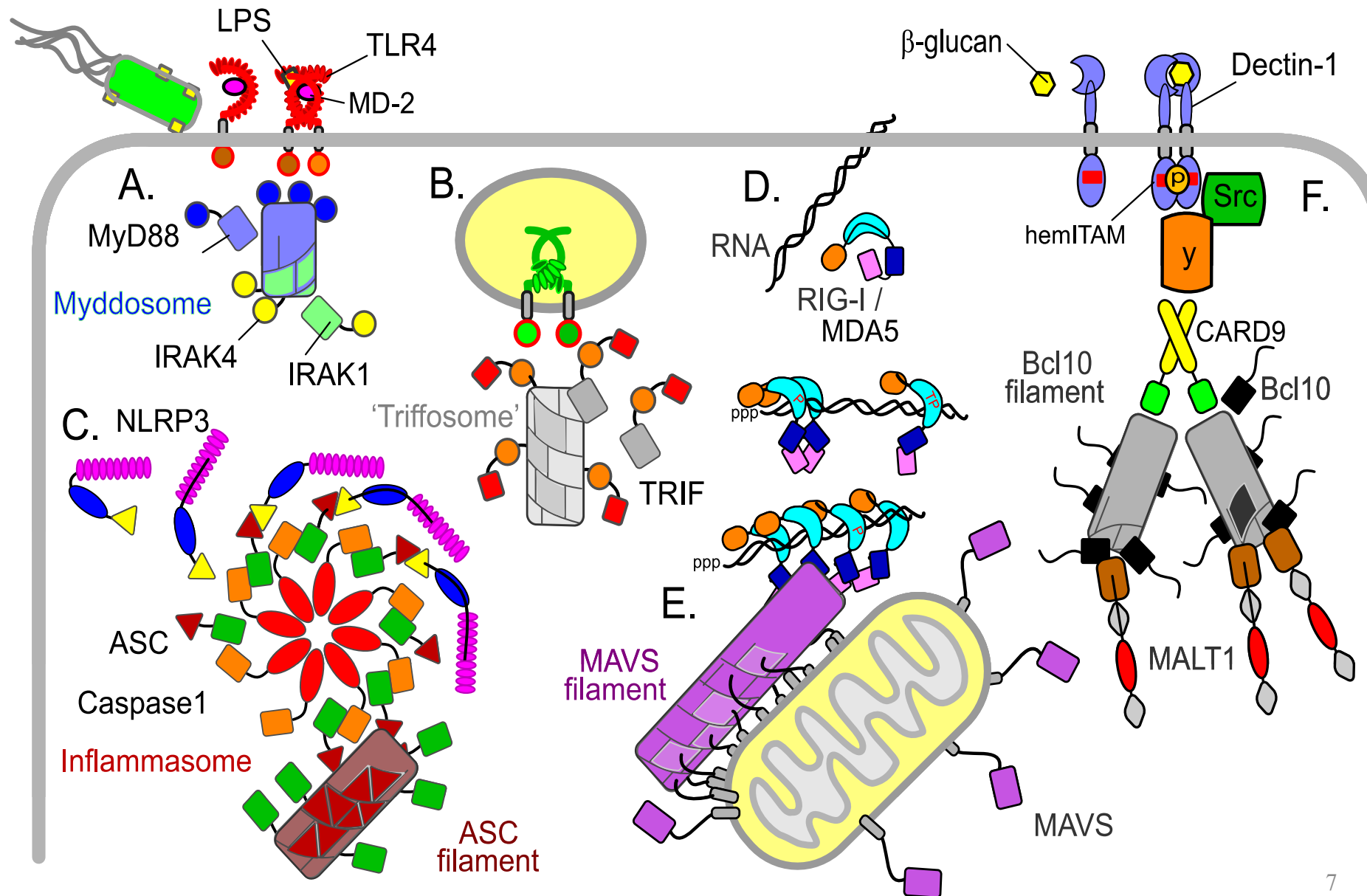
Receptor	Microbial product
TLR-1 (with TLR-2)	Mycobacterial lipoprotein Triacylated lipoproteins
TLR-2 (with TLR-1 or TLR-6)	Gram-positive bacteria Peptidoglycan, lipoteichoic acid Zymosan, liparabinomannan Bacterial glycolipids, yeast mannan GPI anchors of <i>Trypanosoma cruzi</i> LPS from <i>Leptospira interrogans</i> LPS from <i>Porphyromonas gingivalis</i> (more cylindrical)
TLR-3	Viral dsRNA, synthetic polyinosinic acid: cytidylic acid (poly I: C)
TLR-4	Gram-negative bacteria LPS (conical shape), pneumolysin Lipid A (strictly cylindrical, antagonist) LPS from <i>Rhodobacter sphaeroides</i> (strictly cylindrical) Flavolipin from <i>Flavobacterium meningosepticum</i> Respiratory syncytial virus protein F <i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i> hyphae HSP 60 and 70, hyaluronan Fibronectin A domain, fibrinogen Necrotic cells, saturated fatty acids, taxol (only in mice)
TLR-5	Flagellin
TLR-6 (with TLR-2)	Mycoplasma lipoproteins, lipoteichoic acid, peptidoglycan
TLR-7 and TLR-8	Single-stranded RNA, imidazoquinolones
TLR-9	CpG DNA, hemozoin
TLR-10	Unknown
TLR-11	Uropathogenic bacteria Profilin-like protein molecule in <i>Toxoplasma gondii</i>
TLR-12	Profilin-like protein molecule in <i>Toxoplasma gondii</i>
RIG-1	5' triphosphorylated dsRNA
MDA-5	Long dsRNA
Protein kinase R	dsRNA
Dectin-I	$\beta$ -Glucans
Mannose receptor	Liparabinomannan
f-MLP receptor	f-MLP
Moesin	LPS

# A few example PRR ligands

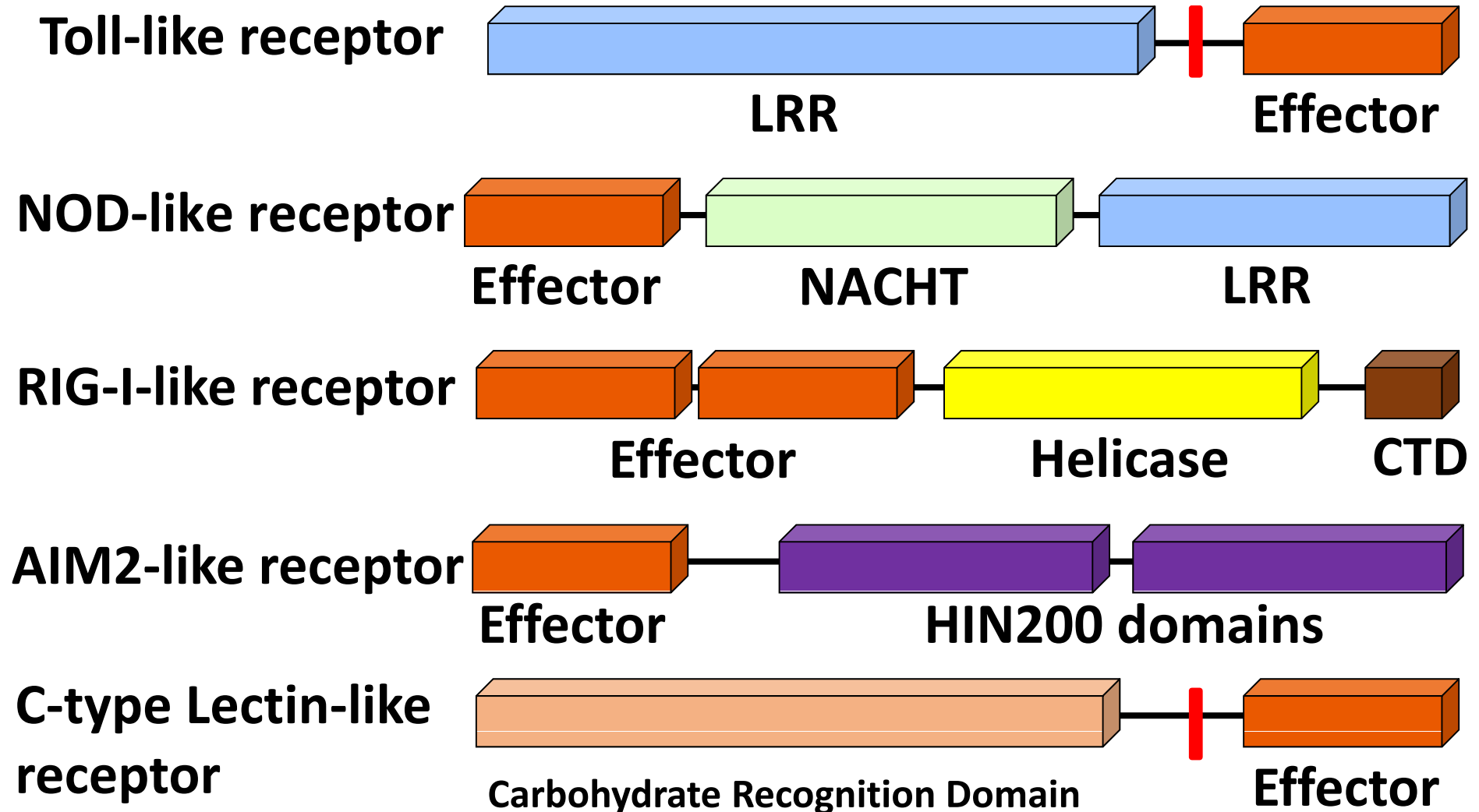
PRR ligands are generally highly conserved molecular patterns that provide a key function.

This means that they are less prone to mutation and variation.

# PRR localisation



# PRR Domain Structure

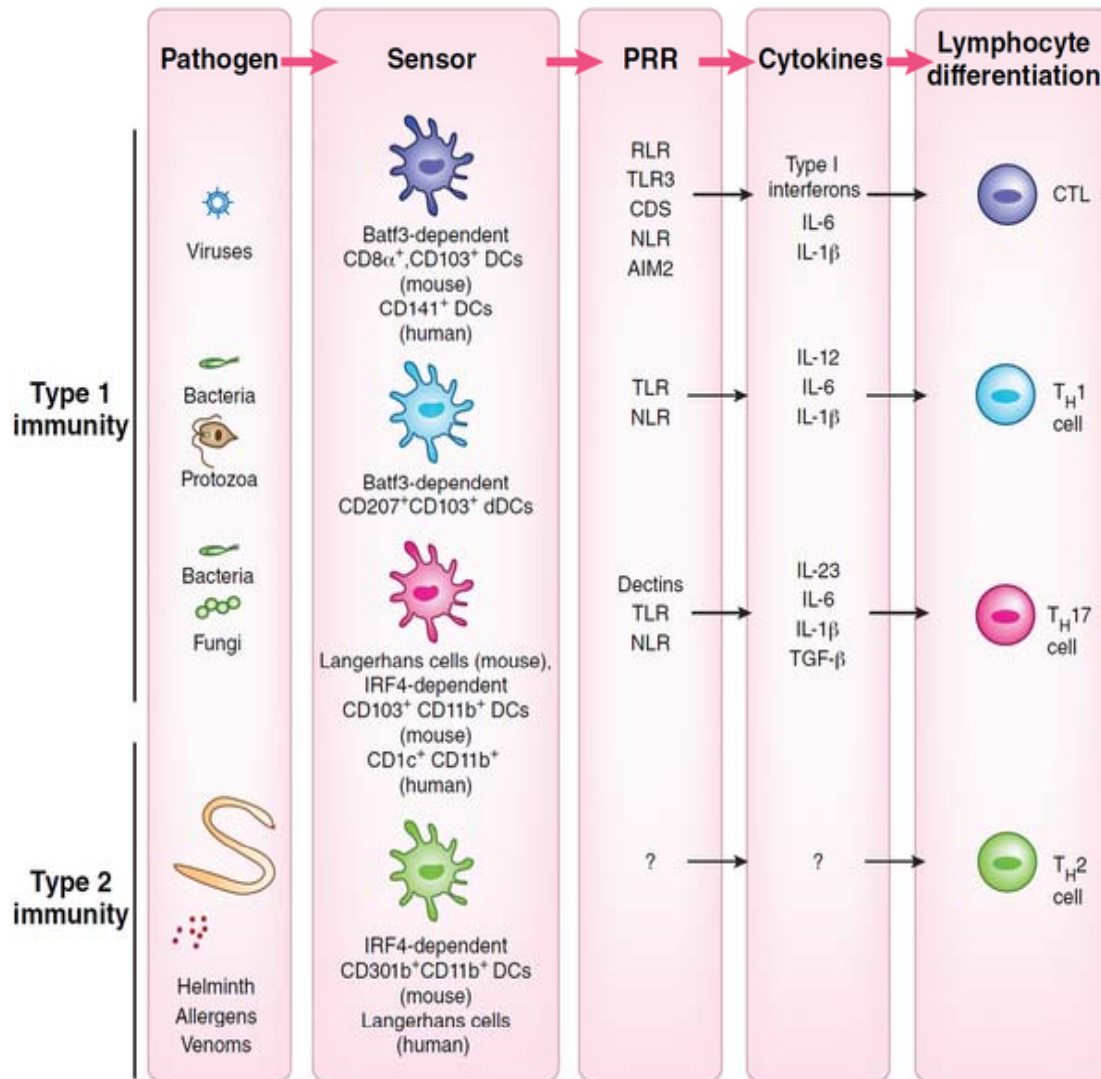




# Consequences of PRR activation

- Ligand recognition switches on PRR signalling pathways to activate innate and adaptive immunity.
- At its most simple PRR activation activates the host innate immune response to induce localised and specific cytokine production to control pathogens and remove danger.
- PRR activation results in an immune response finely balanced between protection and destruction
- Over, prolonged or inappropriate activation of PRRs can result in disease or even death
  - Sepsis, type II diabetes, cryopyrin-associated periodic syndromes

# PRRs and adaptive immunity



- It is becoming increasingly clear that PRR activation has a key role in determining the precise nature of the adaptive immune response

# PRRs and vaccines

**Table 1. Triggering of the Innate and Adaptive Components of the Immune System by Major Adjuvants**

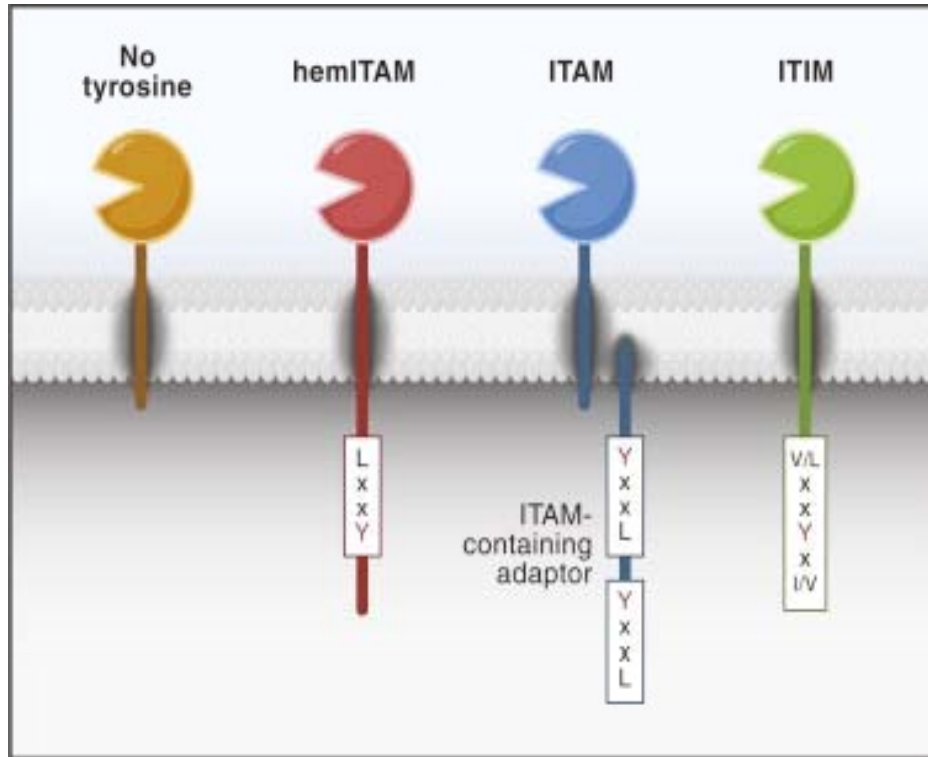
Adjuvant	Major Immunostimulatory Component(s)	Innate Receptors or Pathway Activated	Principal Immune Responses Stimulated
<b>Licensed Adjuvants</b>			
Alum	aluminum salts	NLRP3 inflammasome (?)	Ab, Th2 (+ Th1 in humans)
MF59 and AS03	squalene-in-water emulsions	tissue inflammation (no receptors defined)	Ab, Th1 + Th2
AS04	MPL plus alum	TLR4 and inflammasome (?)	Ab, Th1
<b>Adjuvants in Widespread Experimental Use or in Late Stage Clinical Development</b>			
Poly-IC (also Poly-ICLC)	synthetic derivatives of dsRNA	TLR3, MDA5	Ab, Th1, CD8 <sup>+</sup> T cells
MPL and formulations (AS01, AS02)	MPL and QS-21	TLR4 (MPL), ? (QS21)	Ab, Th1
Flagellin, flagellin-Ag fusion proteins	Flagellin from <i>S. typhimurium</i>	TLR5	Ab, Th1 + Th2
Imiquimods	imidazoquinoline derivatives	TLR7, TLR8 or both	Ab, Th1, CD8 <sup>+</sup> T cells (when conjugated)
CpG oligodeoxynucleotides and formulations (IC31, QB10)	synthetic phosphorothioate-linked DNA oligonucleotides with optimized CpG motifs	TLR9	Ab, Th1, CD8 <sup>+</sup> T cells (when conjugated)
CAF01	trehalose dimycolate (cord factor)	Mincle	Ab, Th1, Th17
ISCOMS and ISCOMATRIX	saponins	mechanism undefined	Ab, Th1+ Th2, CD8 <sup>+</sup> T cells
IFA (and Montanide formulations)	mineral or paraffin oil + surfactant	mechanism undefined	Ab, Th1 + Th2
CFA	IFA + peptidoglycan, trehalose dimycolate	NLR, inflammasome, Mincle, TLR?	Ab, Th1, Th17

The principal immune response stimulated is based on results from human and mouse studies, although it may be limited to one species in some cases. Where indicated, conjugation of TLR ligand to antigen is necessary to obtain significant CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell responses.

# C-type Lectin Receptor (CLR) signalling

- C-type lectin  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent carbohydrate-binding lectins.
- CLRs share at least one carbohydrate recognition domain with conserved residue motifs: determines carbohydrate specificity of the CLR.
- Can have one or more domains that are homologous to carbohydrate recognition domains but do not always bind carbohydrate structures.
- CLRs exist both as soluble and transmembrane proteins (PRRs).

# C-type Lectin Receptors (CLRs)



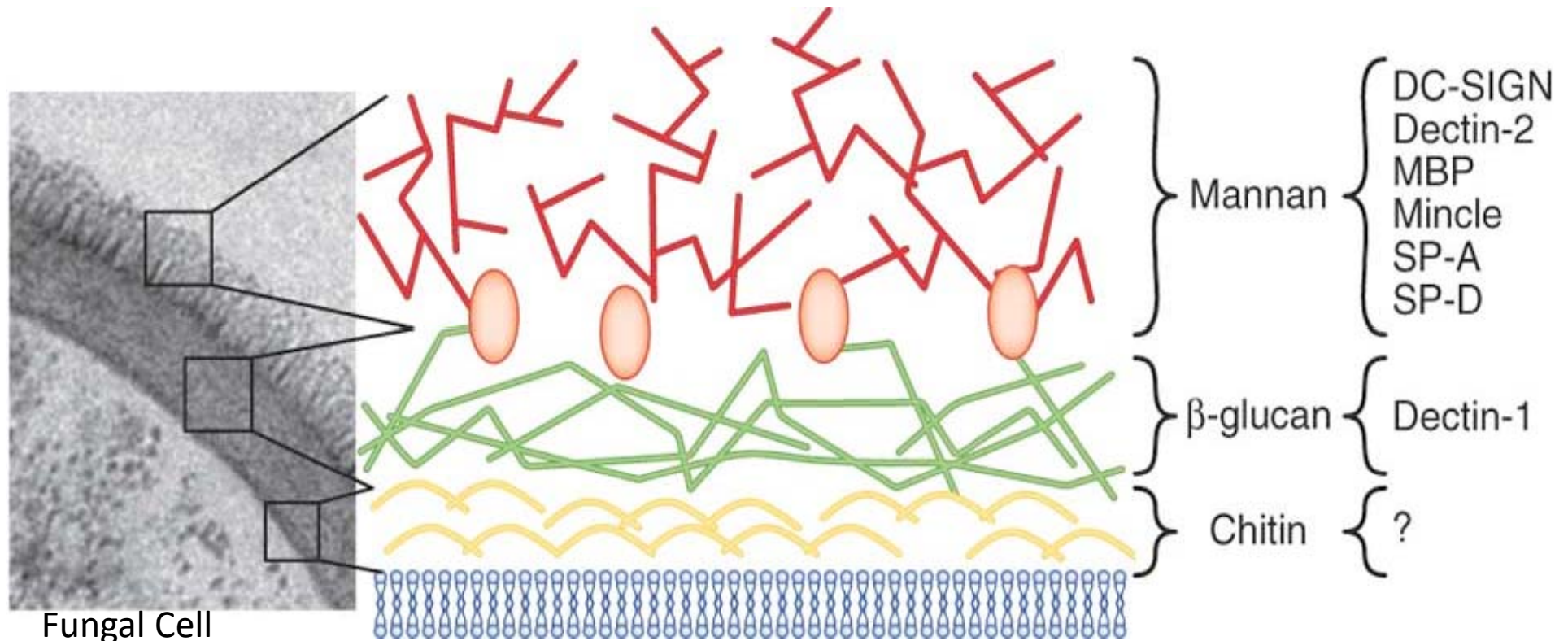
- Classified based on type of Tyrosine-Based Signaling Motif, which determines potential to engage pathways that induce or modulate gene expression rather than signal for endocytosis.

- CLRs bearing a hemITAM or ITIM motif are all type II transmembrane proteins; hence the motif is written with the tyrosine depicted as membrane distal.

*Examples:*

1. *mannose receptor, CD206, CLEC13D: virus, bacteria, fungi, protozoa*
2. *langerin, CD207, CLEC4K: virus, bacteria but primarily fungi*
3. *DEC-205, CD205, CLEC13B: virus, bacteria, dead cells*
4. *Dectin-1, CLEC7A: mycobacteria, fungi*

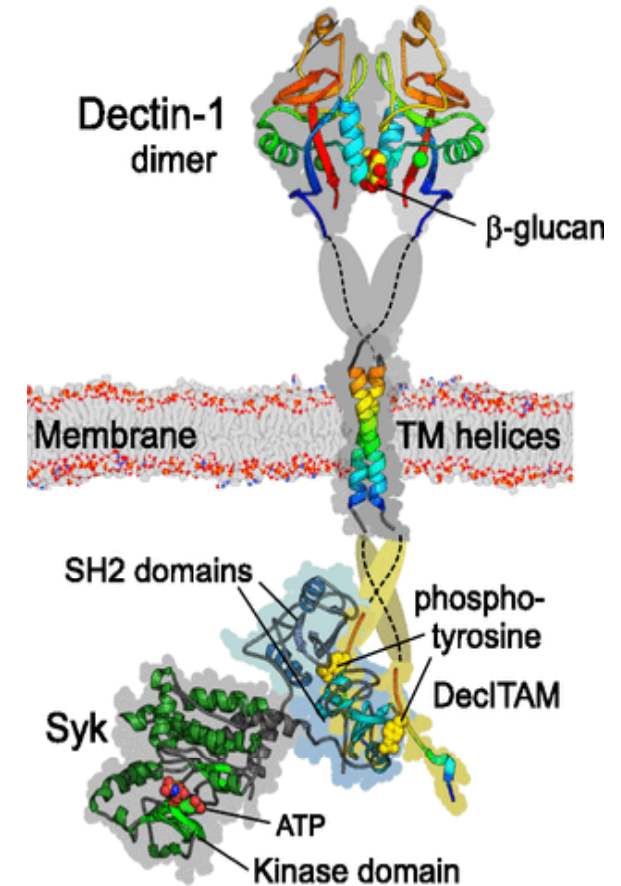
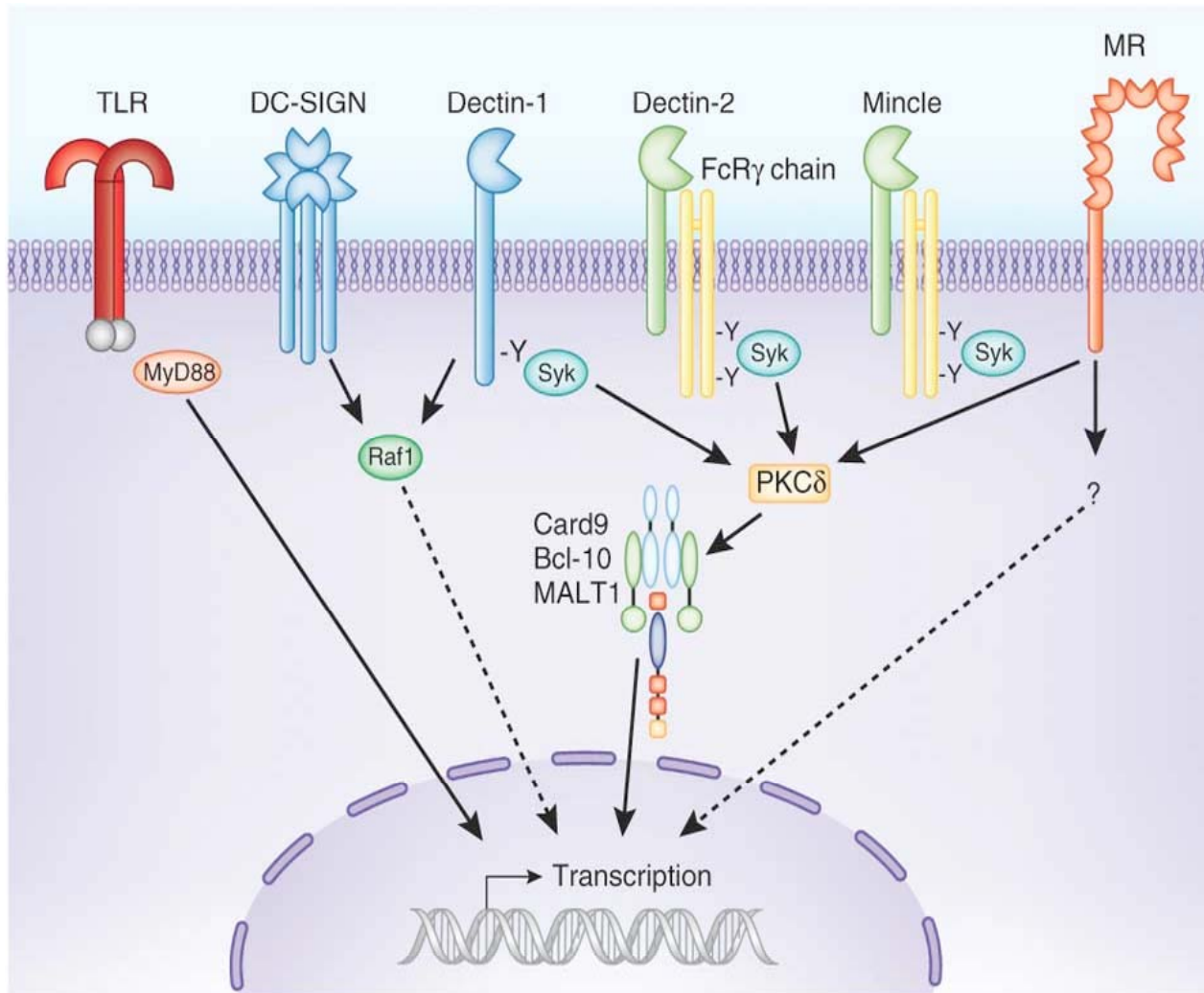
# Fungal recognition by CLRs



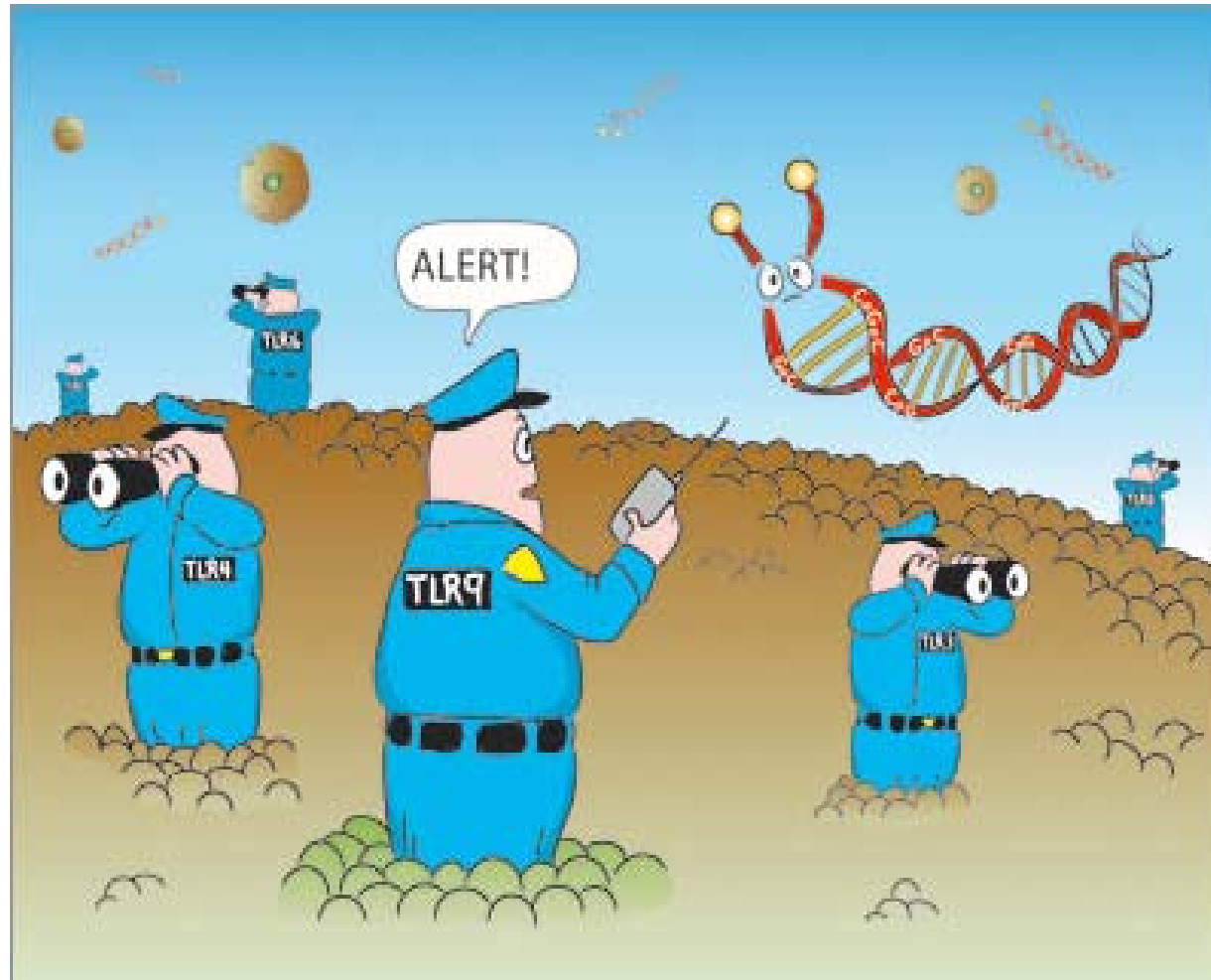
- CLRs recognise pathogens through mannose, fucose and glucan carbohydrate structures (mannose - viruses, fungi and mycobacteria; fucose - some bacteria and helminths; glucan - mycobacteria and fungi)
- CLR activation leads to internalization of pathogen, its degradation and subsequent antigen presentation



# Fungal Receptor Signalling



# Dirty Little Secrets: Toll and Toll-like receptors: a lot has happened since 1989



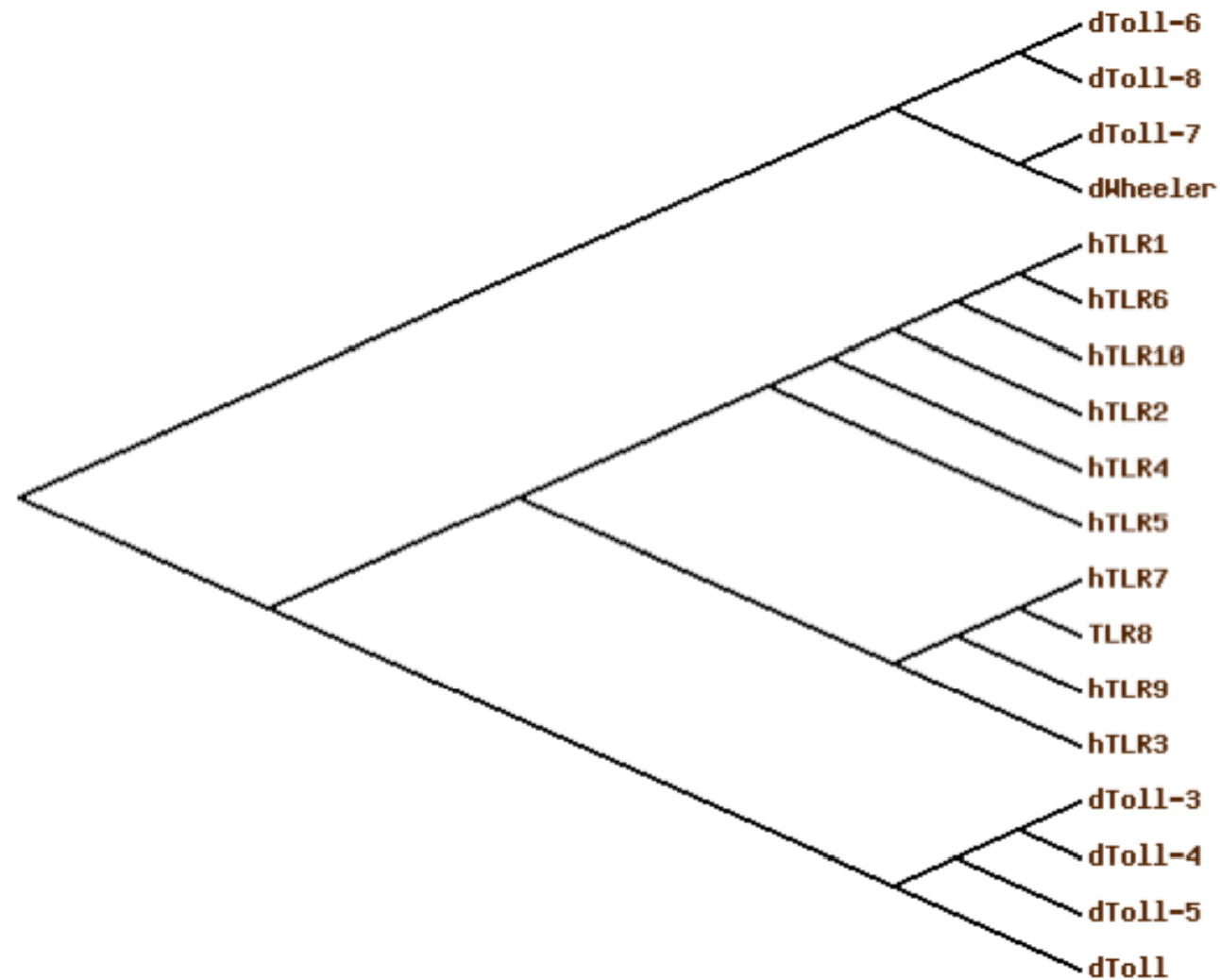
Including a Nobel Prize awarded in 2011 to Jules Hoffman and Bruce Beutler



# Lessons to be learnt from flies: The *Drosophila* Toll receptor family

- First identified in *Drosophila* in genetic screen for mutants affecting embryonic pattern formation.  
Toll = mad/amazing (German)
- One of about 12 genes involved in dorso-ventral pattern formation.

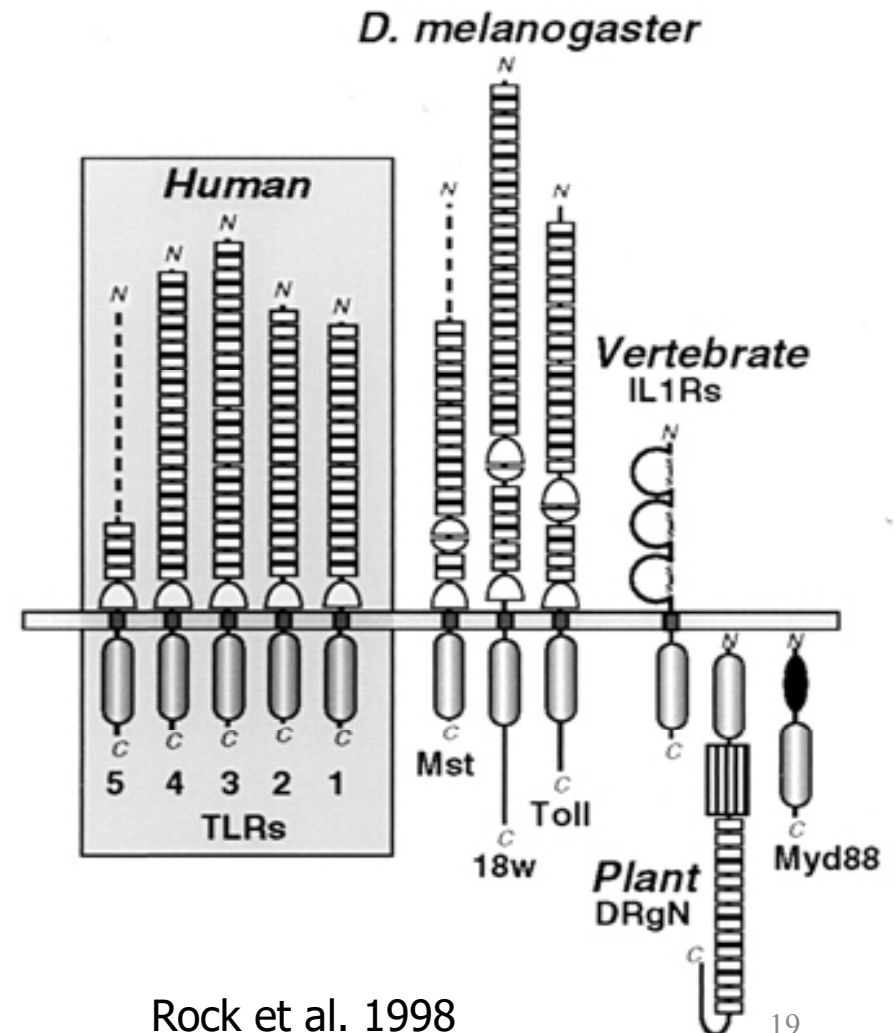
# Phylogenetic tree of the Tolls.



# Toll and Toll-like receptors (TLRs)

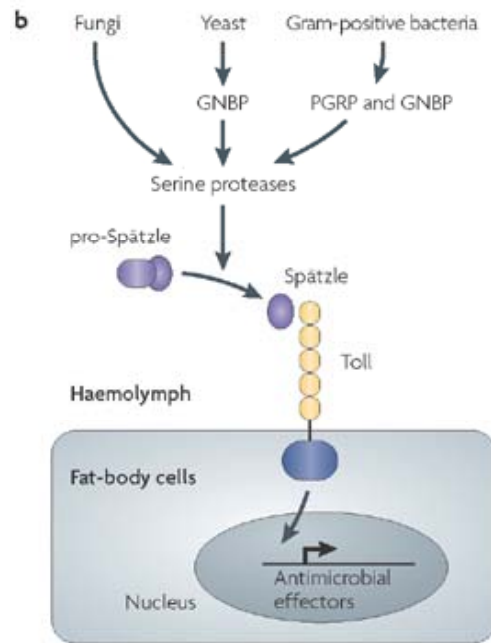
## Architecture of TLRs

- The extracellular region of TLRs contains blocks of leucine-rich repeats surrounded with cysteine-rich regions.
- The intracellular signalling domain (TIR homology domain) is shared by TLRs, Interleukin-1 receptor, plant resistance R proteins and adapter proteins (MyD88, Mal/TIRAP, Tram and Trif).

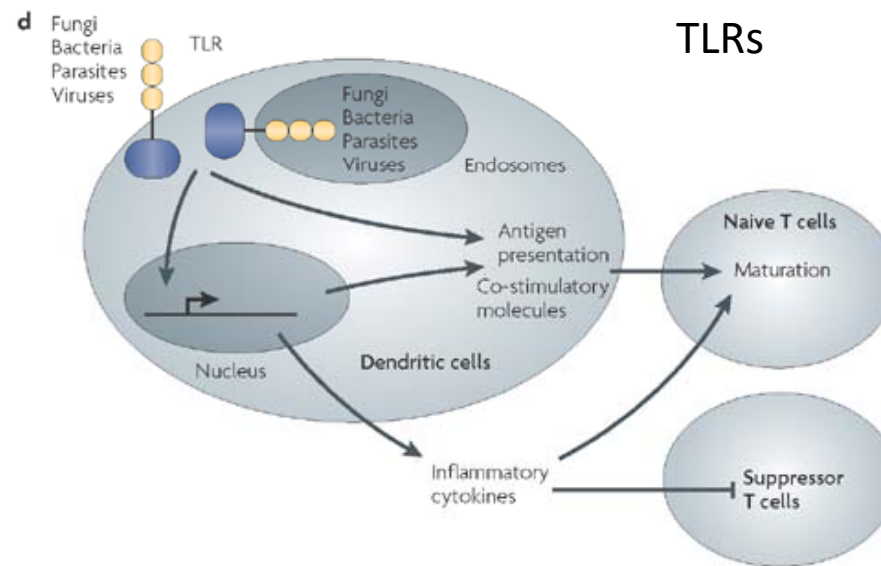
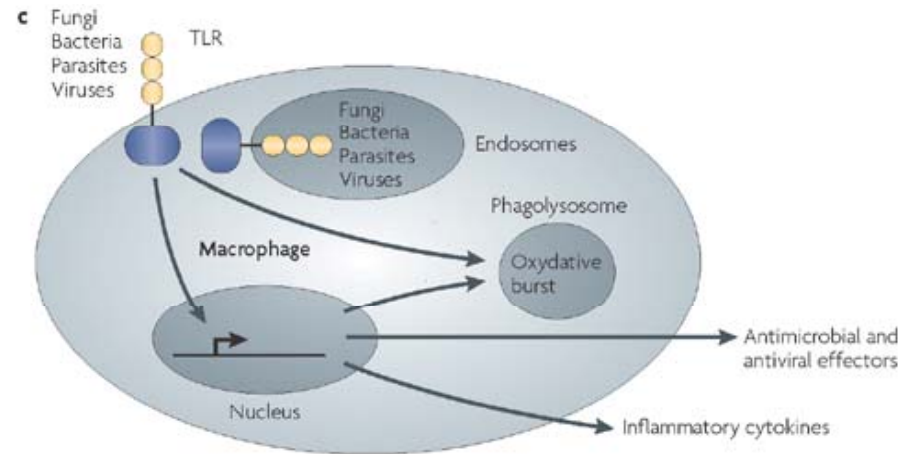


Rock et al. 1998

# Similarities and differences in signalling

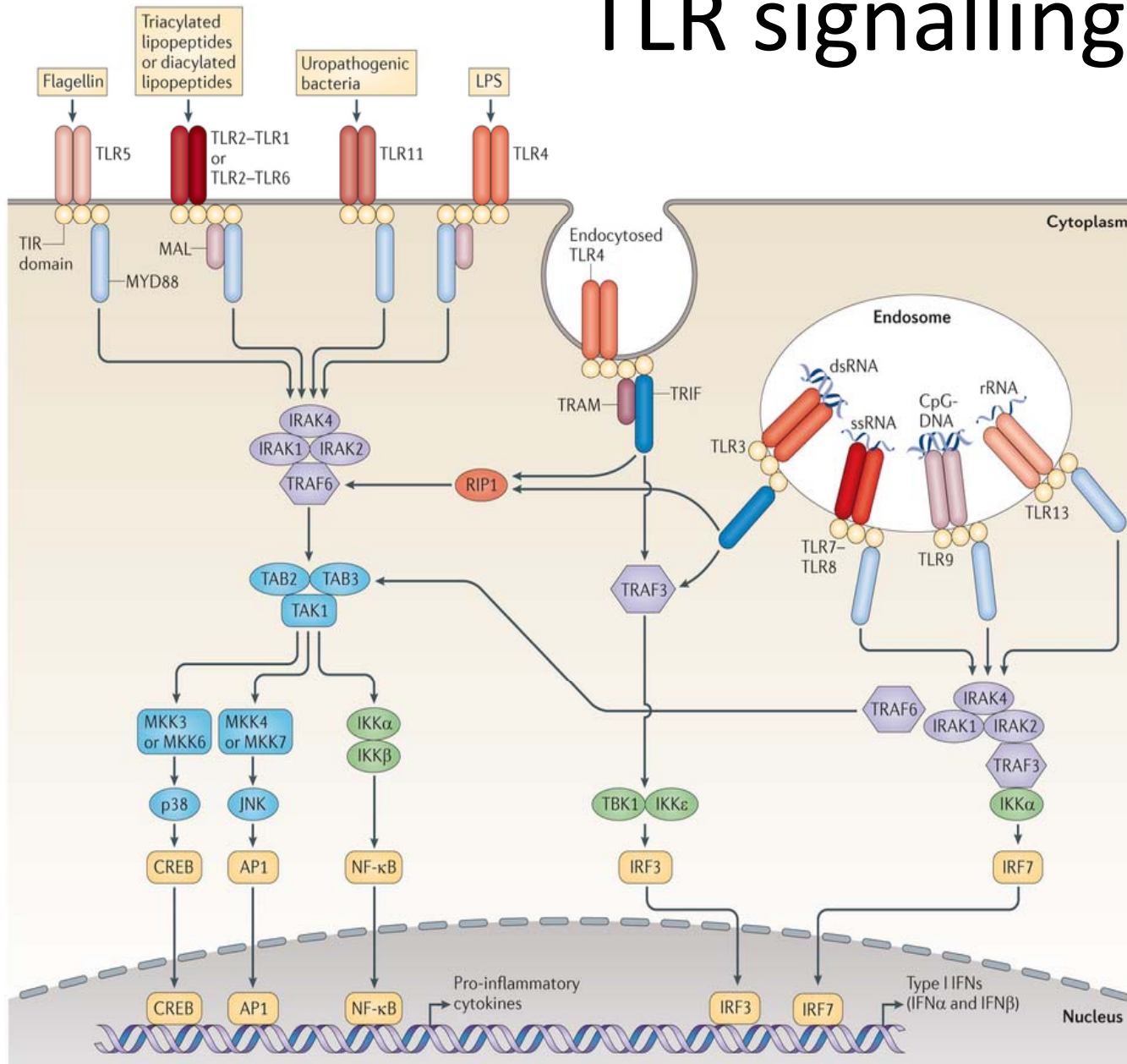


Toll

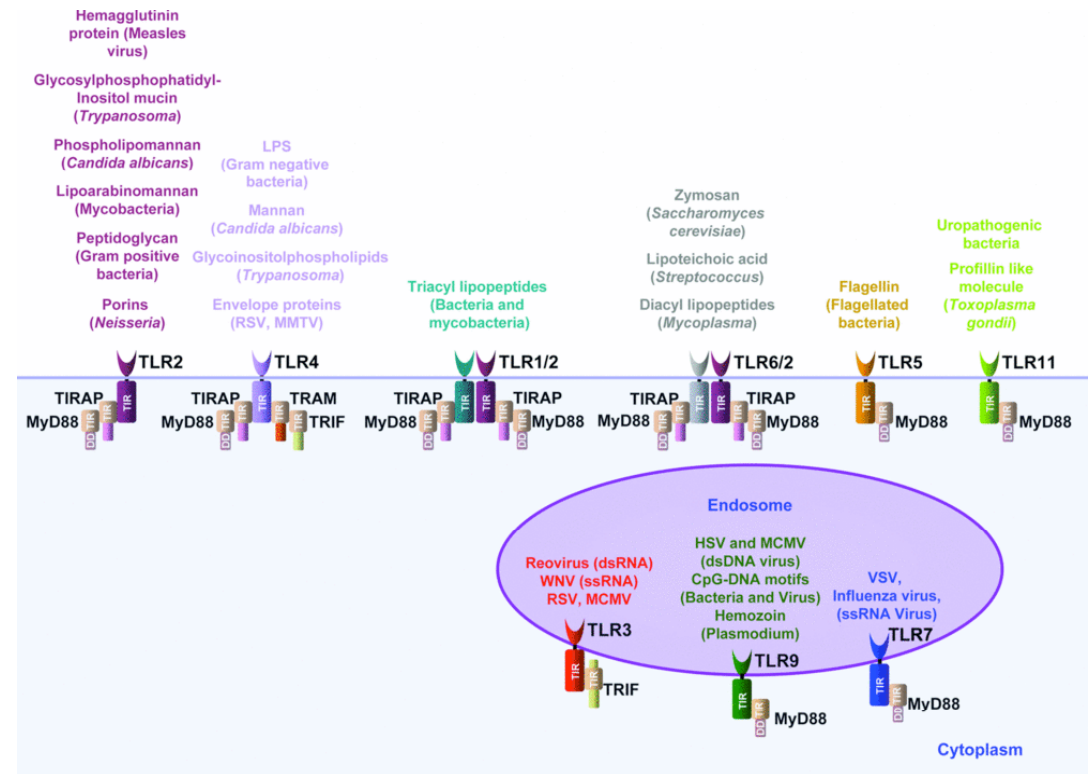
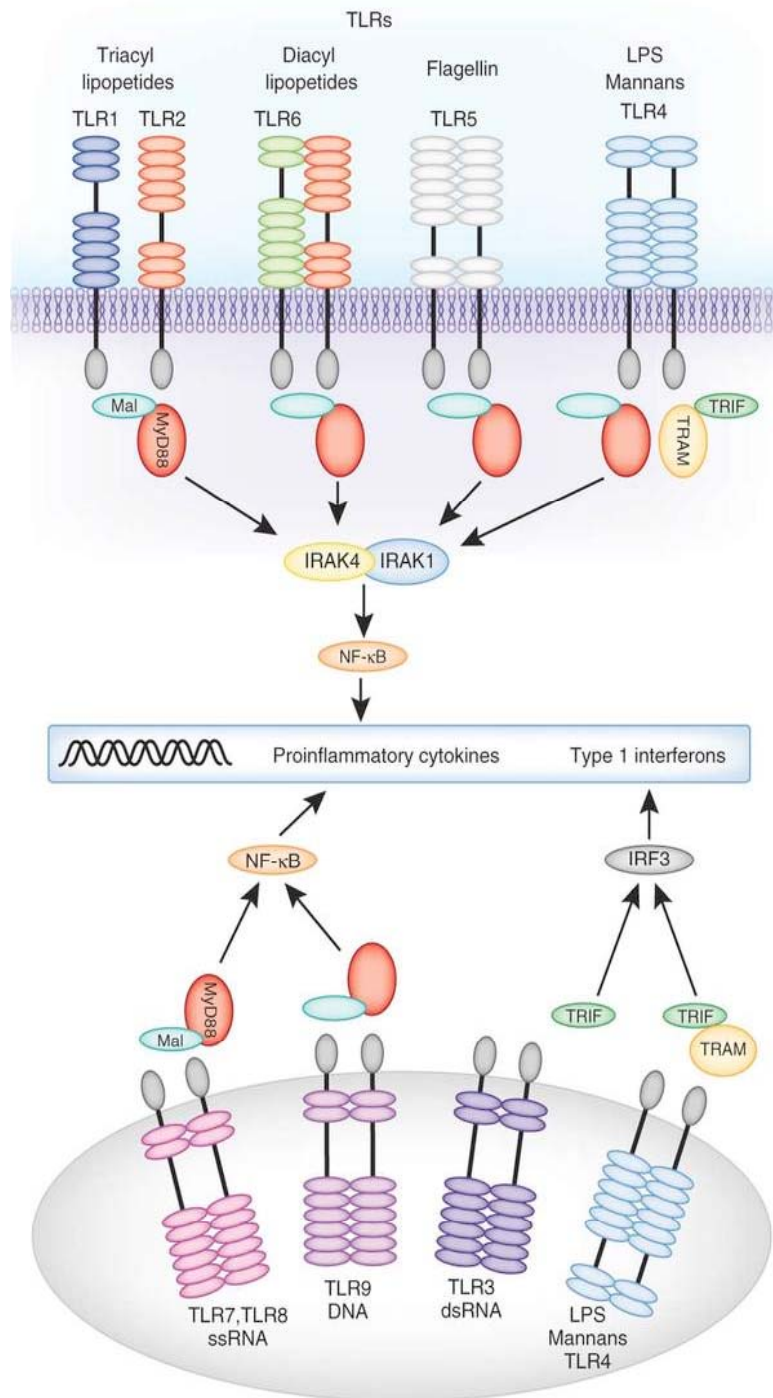


TLRs

# TLR signalling pathways



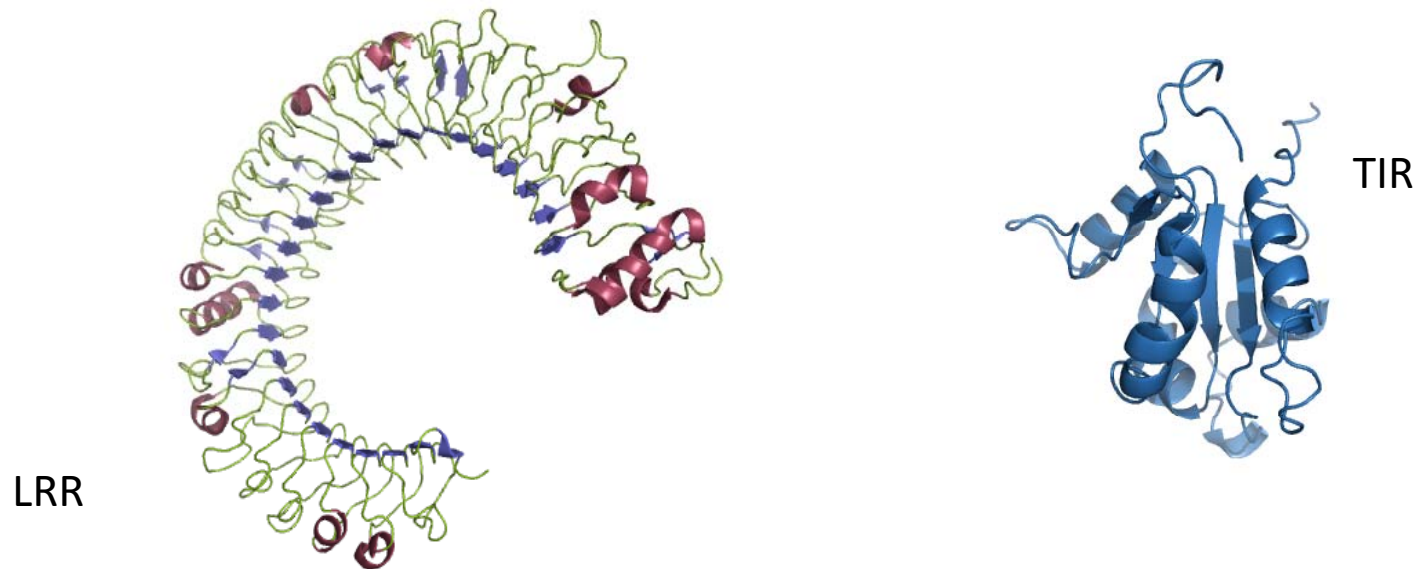
# TLRs and their ligands



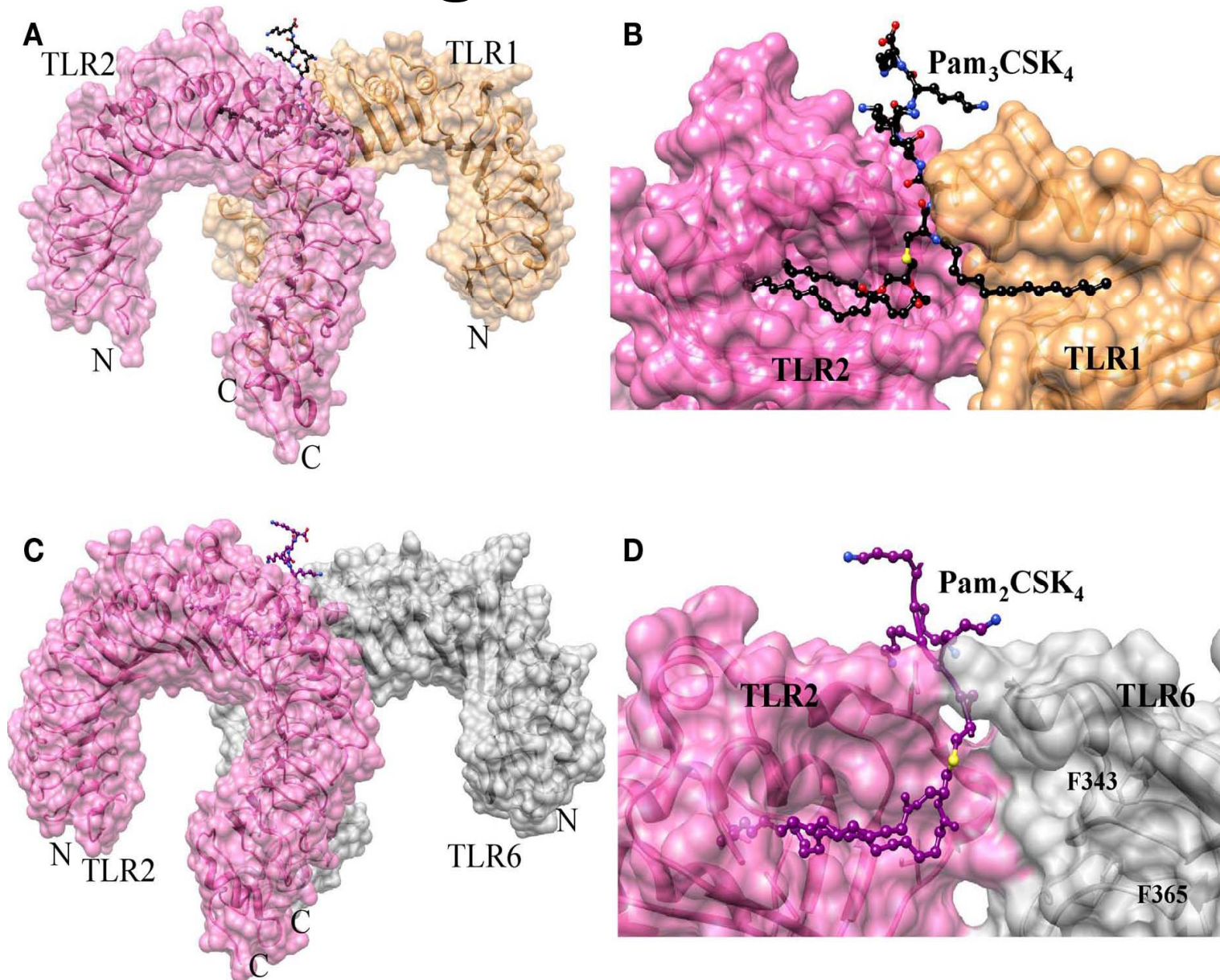


# Ligand specific TLR activation

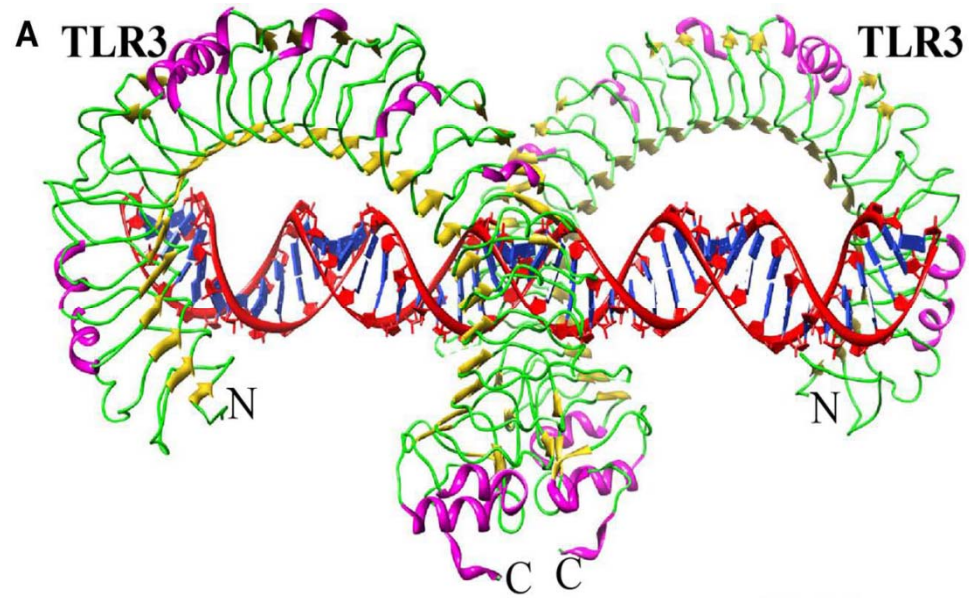
- TLR activation requires direct contact between the ligand and the LRR domain resulting in conformational change in the TIR domain and signal propagation.



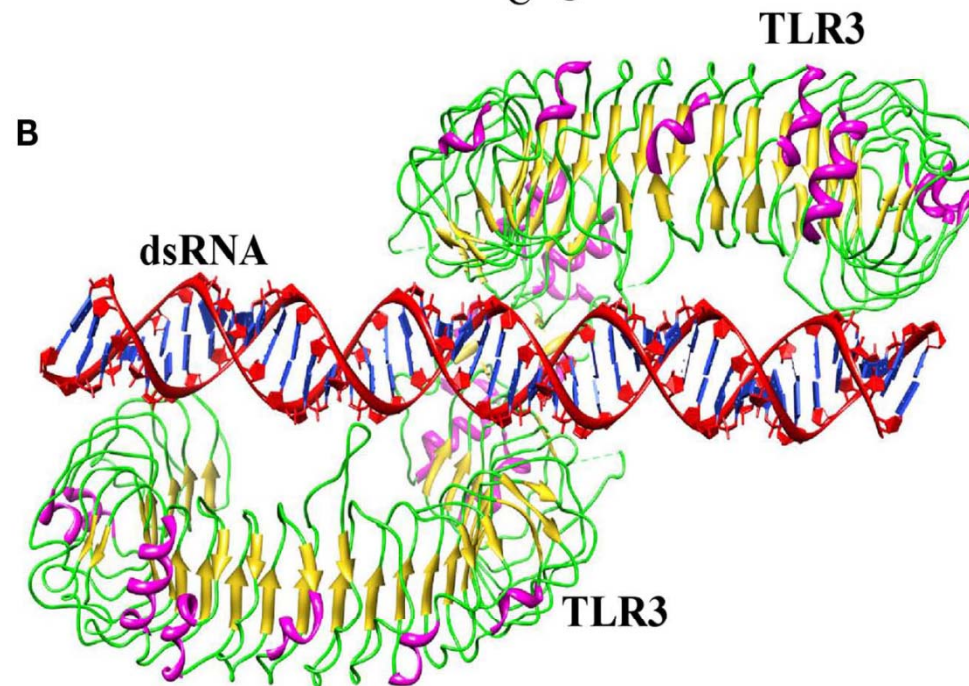
# TLR:Ligand structures



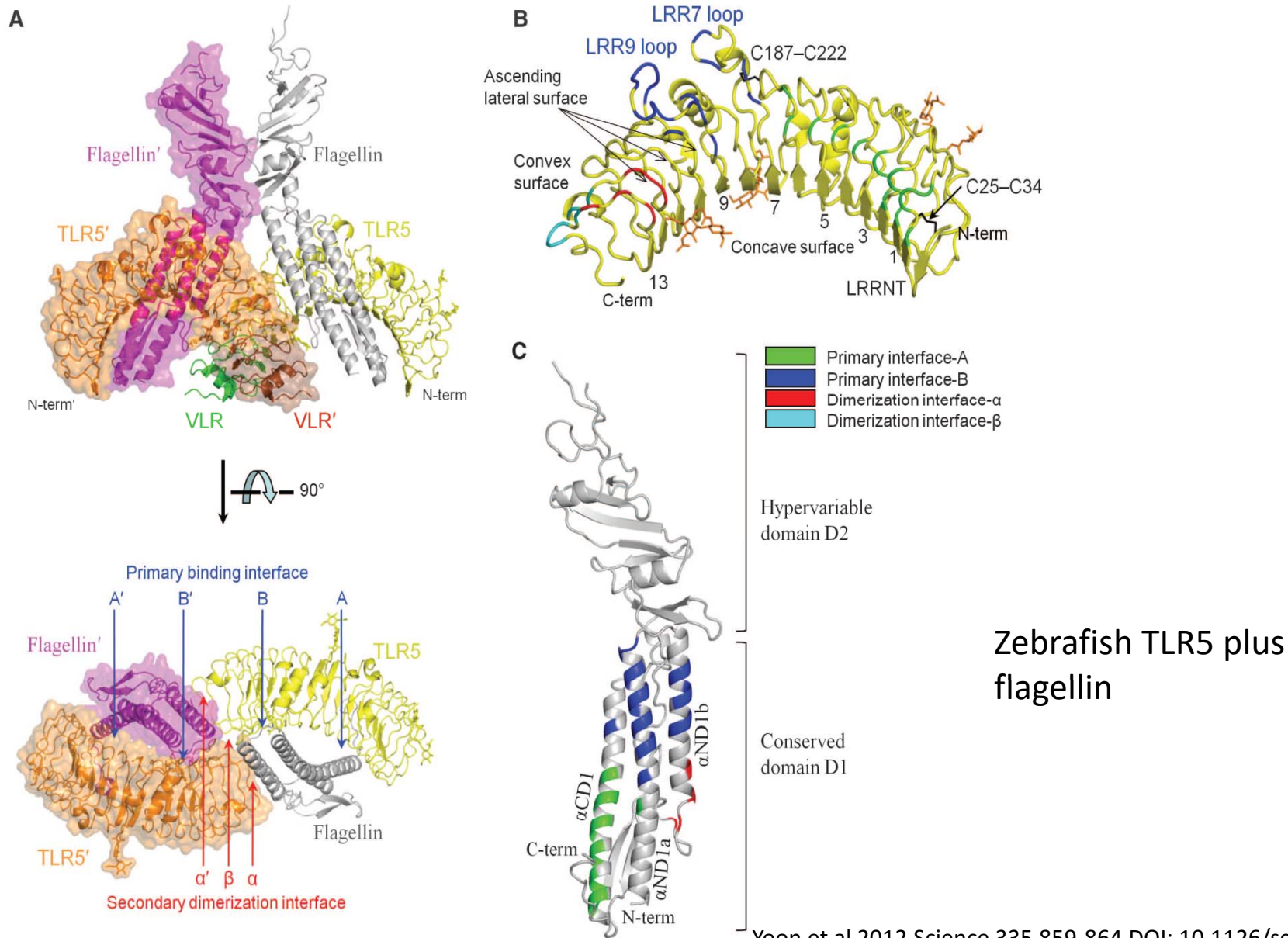




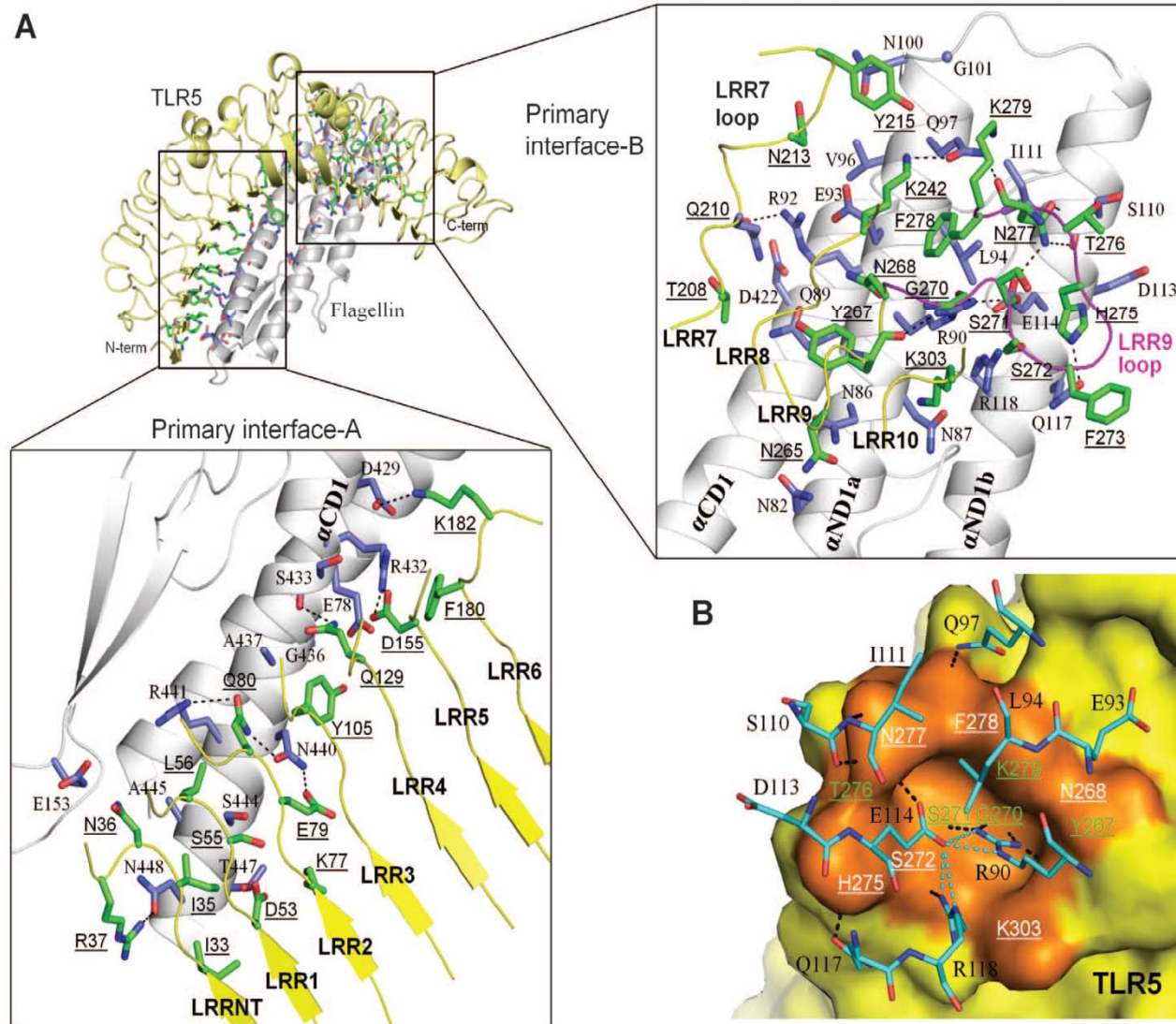
## R:Ligand structures



# TLR:Ligand structures



# TLR:Ligand structures



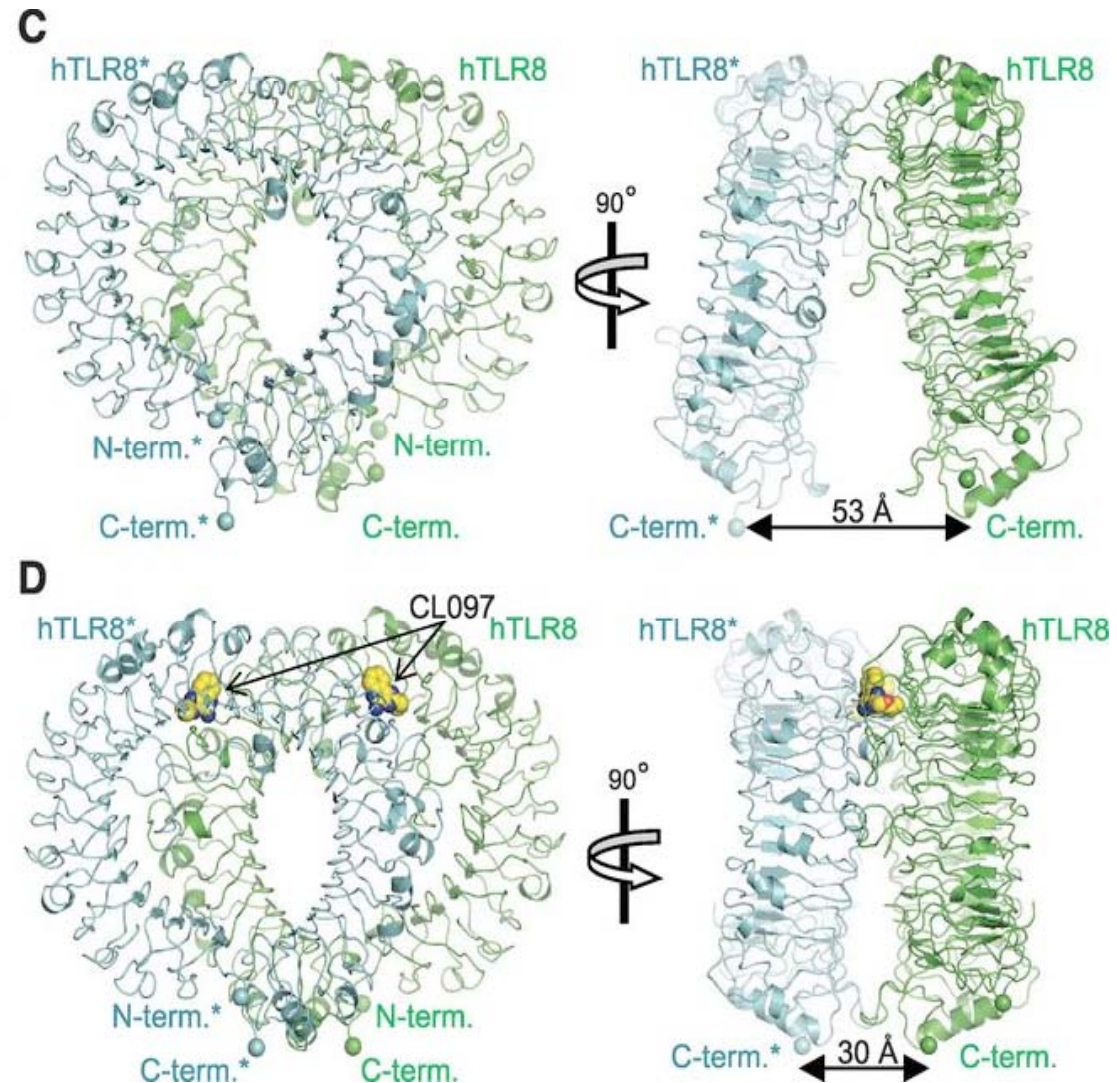
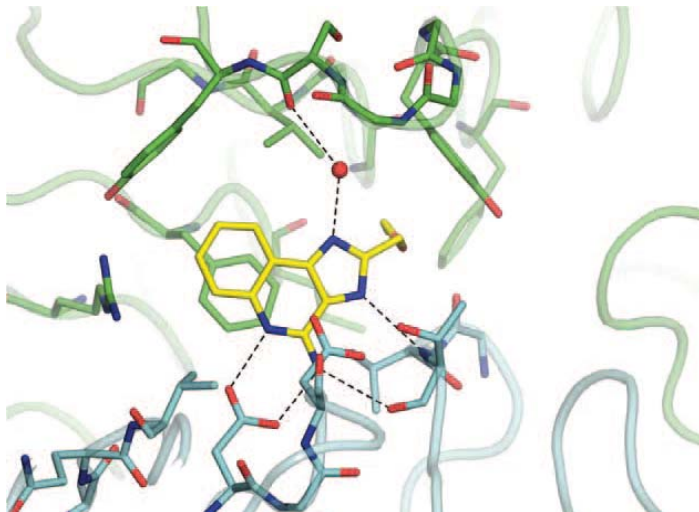
Zebrafish TLR5 plus flagellin



# TLR:Ligand structures

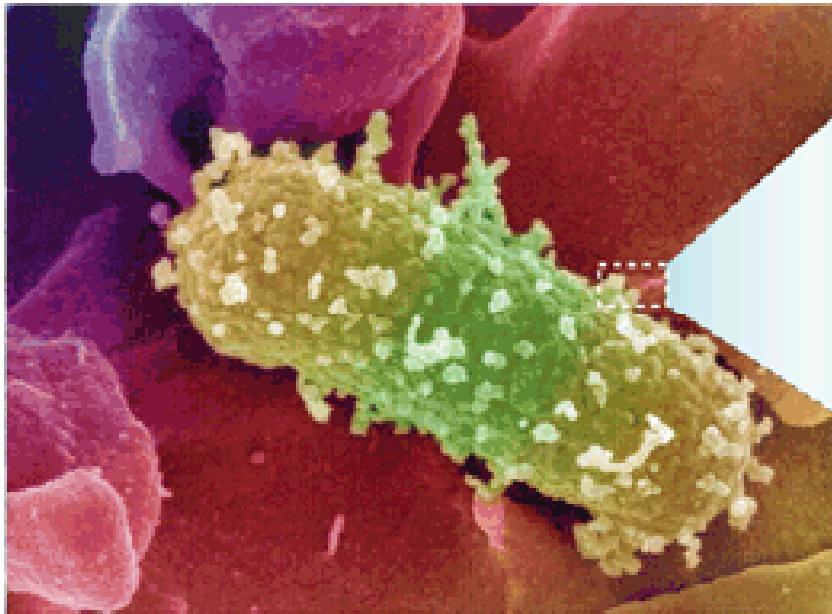
TLR8 bound to CL097, a thiazoloquinolone.

The aromatic ring of the ligand forms stacking interactions with Phe405.

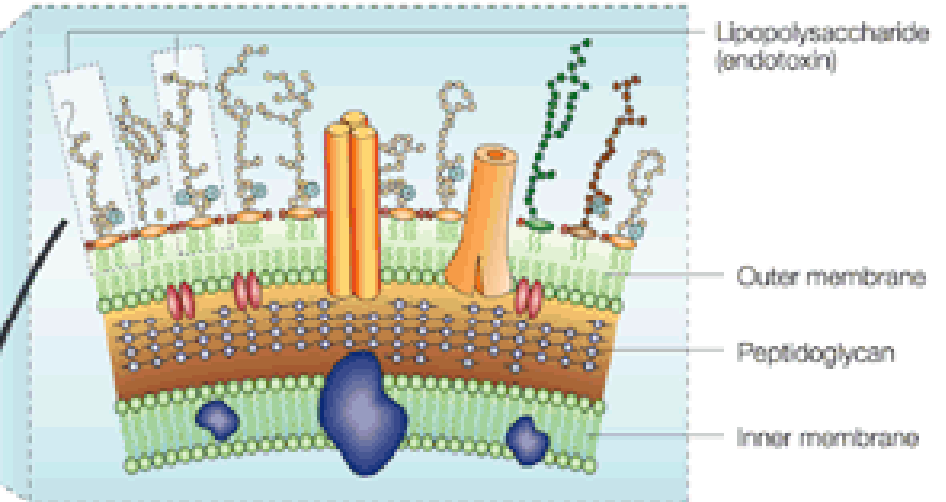


# TLR4 as a model for PRR activation

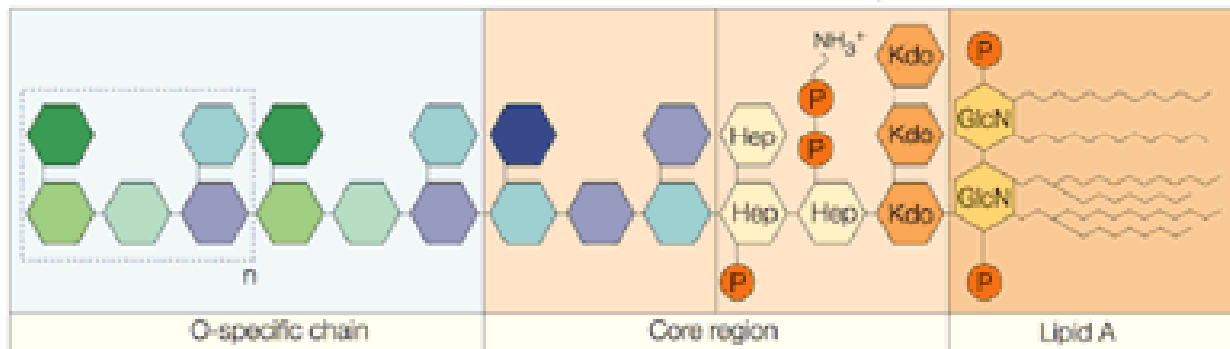
a Bacterial cell (*E. coli*)



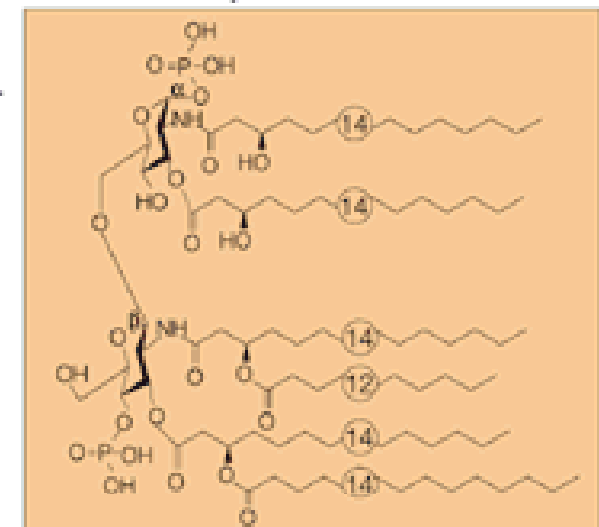
### **b Cell-wall organization**



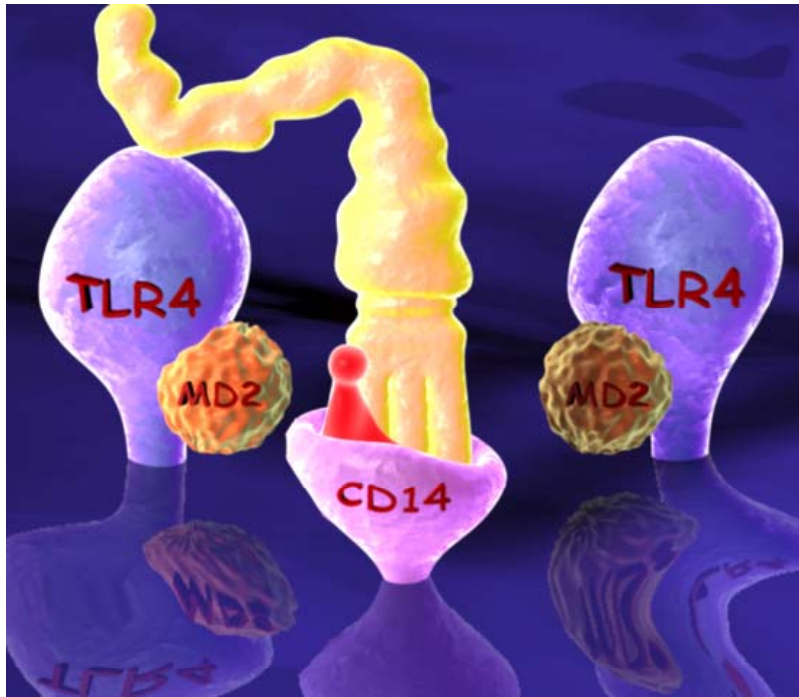
### c Architecture of lipopolysaccharide



**d** Structure of lipid A



# Lipid A (biologically active component of LPS) recognition



- LPS binds LPS binding protein
- LPS-LBP associates with CD-14
- CD-14 presents LPS to TLR-4-MD-2 complex
- TLR-4 dimerises and activates pro-inflammatory genes.

# Ligand recognition by TLR-4

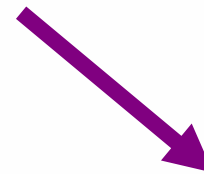
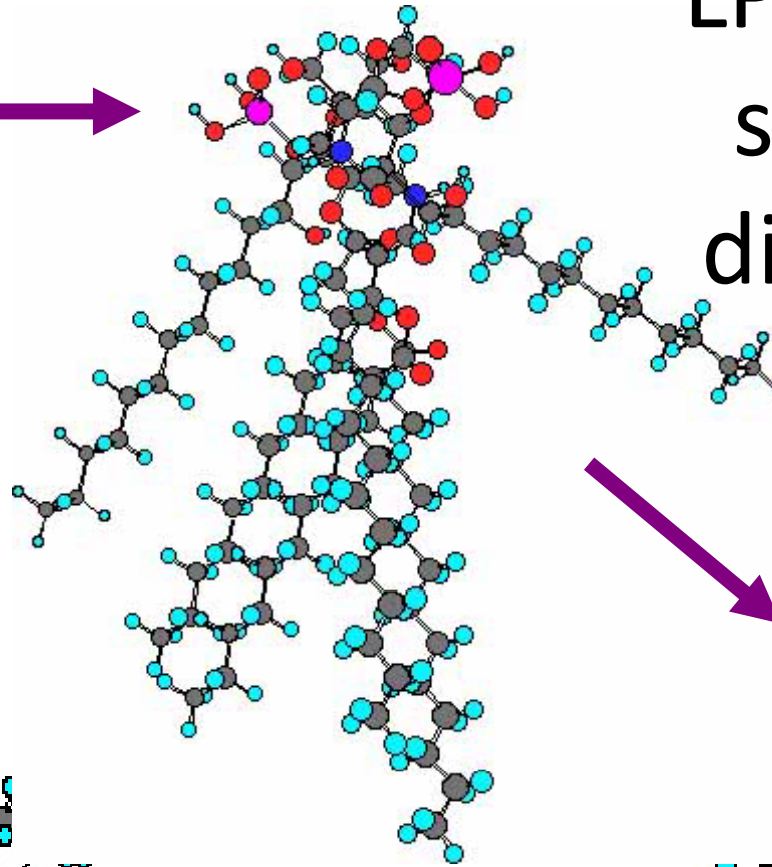
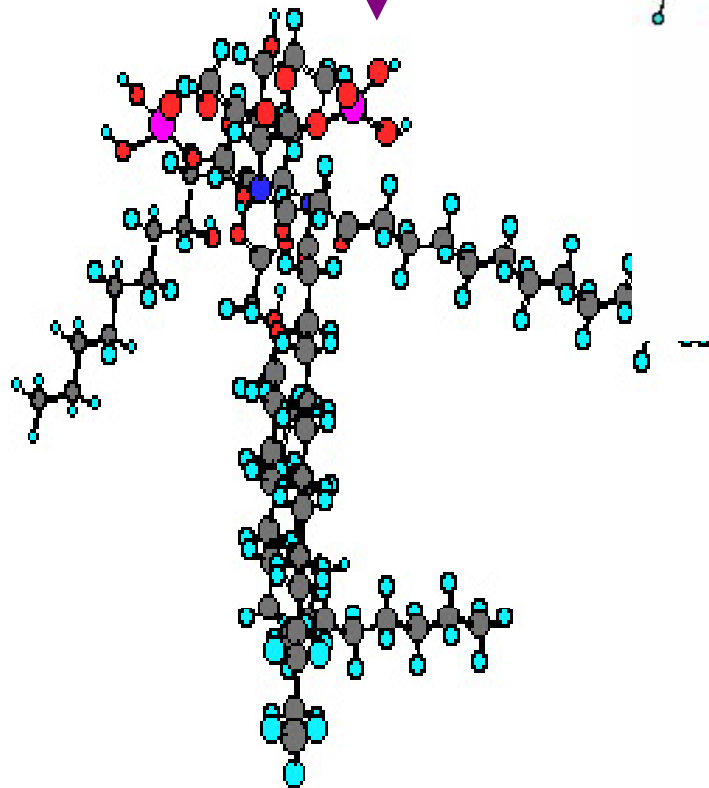
Ligand	Mouse	Human	Horse
<i>E. coli</i> LPS	+	+	+
<i>S. typhimurium</i> LPS	+	+	+
Taxol	+	0	+/-0
Lipid IVa	+	-	PA
<i>R. sphaeroides</i> LPS	-	-	+
E5531	-	-	-
Penta-acylated LPS	+	0	?
Hexa-acylated LPS	+	+	?

LPS – subtle  
structural  
differences

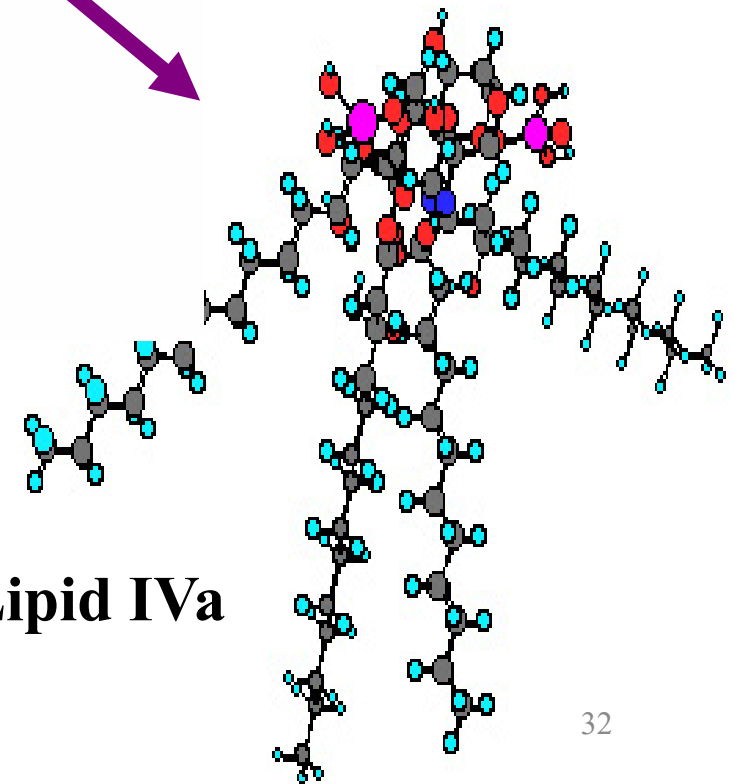
*E. coli* Lipid A



*R. sphaeroides*  
Lipid A

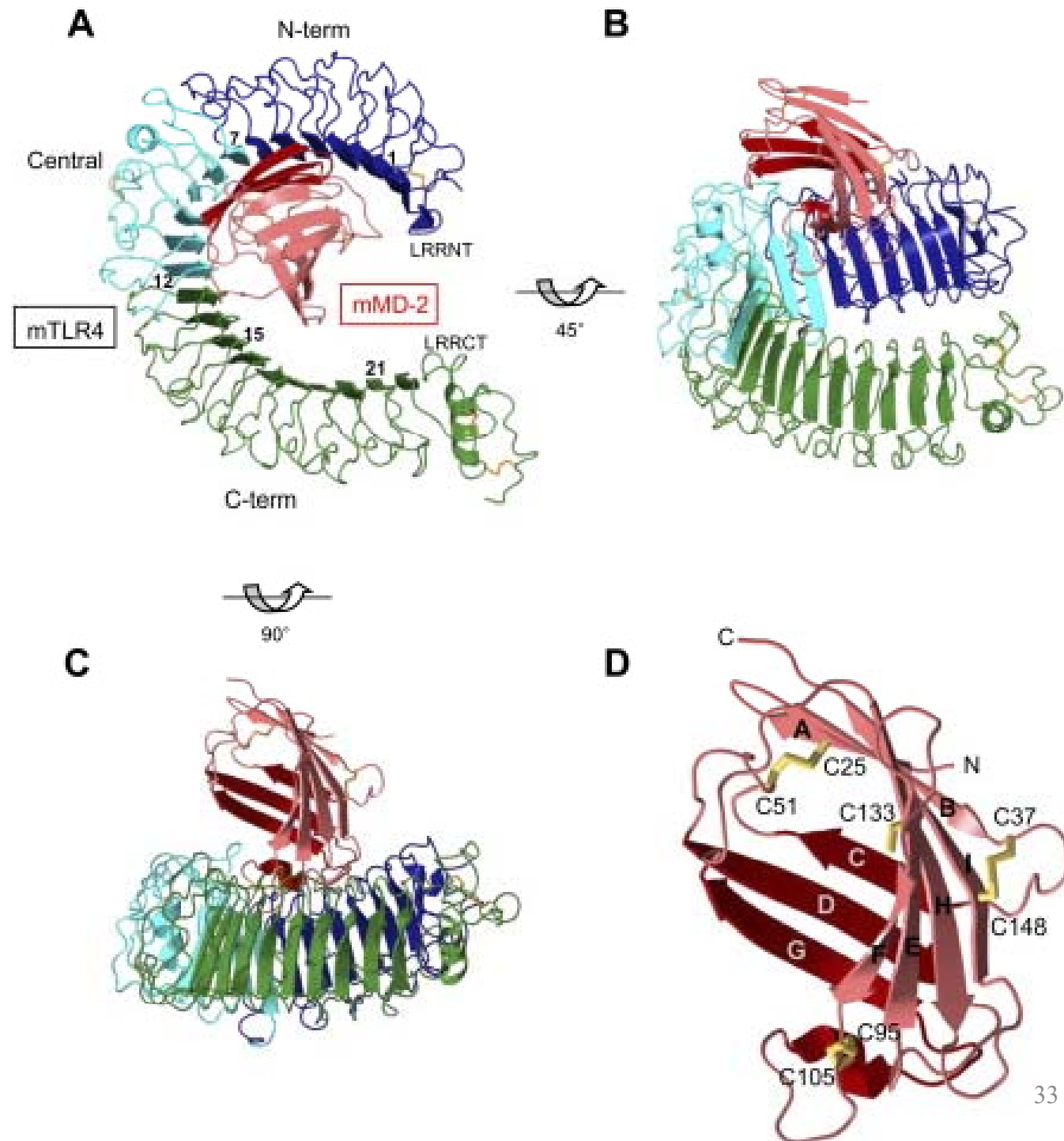


Lipid IVa



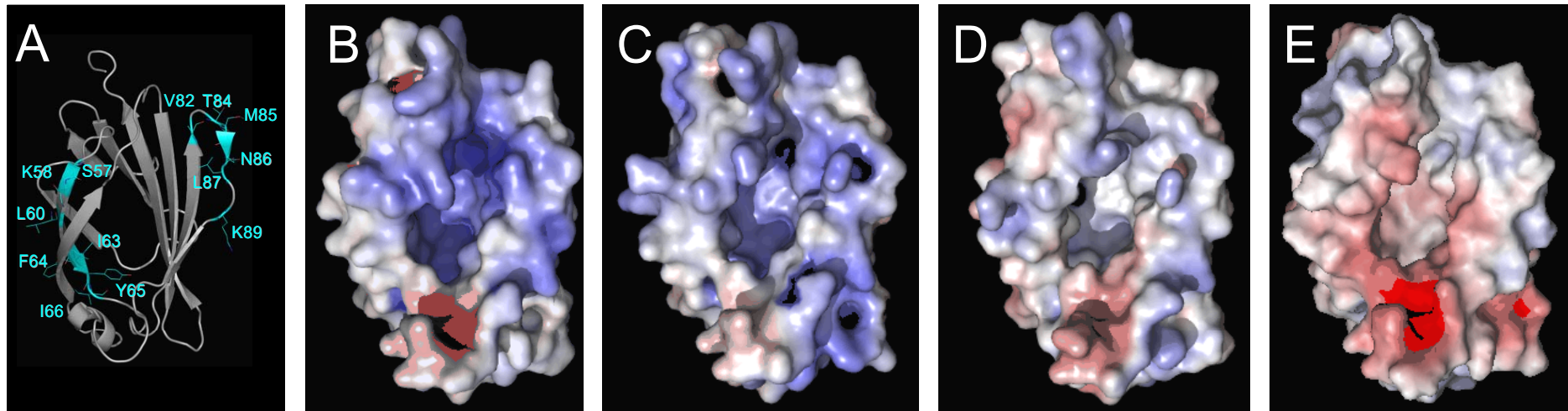


# TLR4



See:  
 Kim et al Cell. 2007 Sep  
 7;130(5):906-17  
 And  
 Park et al Nature. 2009  
 30;458(7242):1191-5

# MD-2 – crucial binding partner

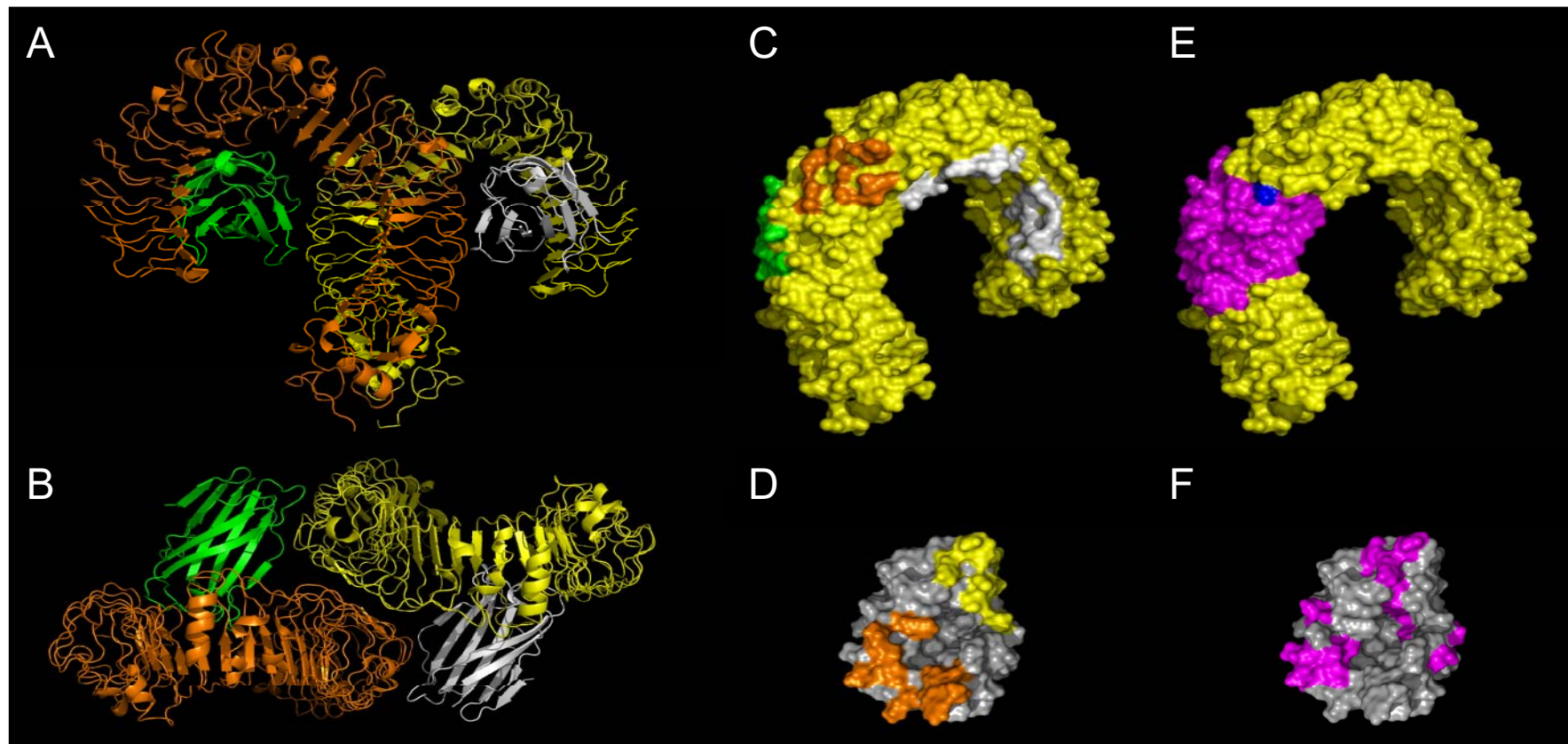


(A) Human MD-2 in ribbon representation: residues 57-66 and 82-89 (vary between human and horse) highlighted in cyan. Residues 57-66 are on beta-strand 4; residues 82-89 are on beta-strand 6a and surrounding loops lining the opening of ligand-binding cavity.

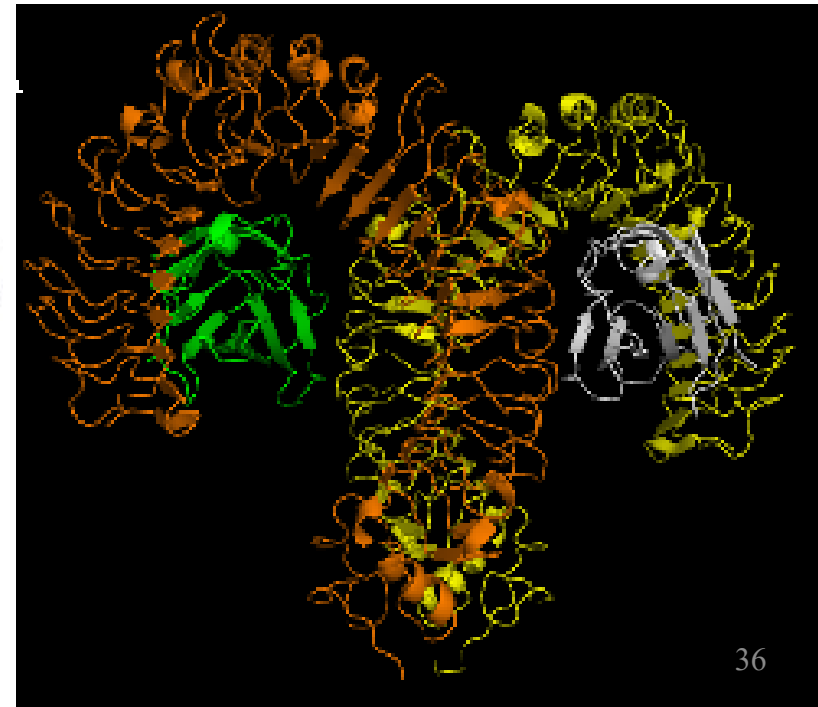
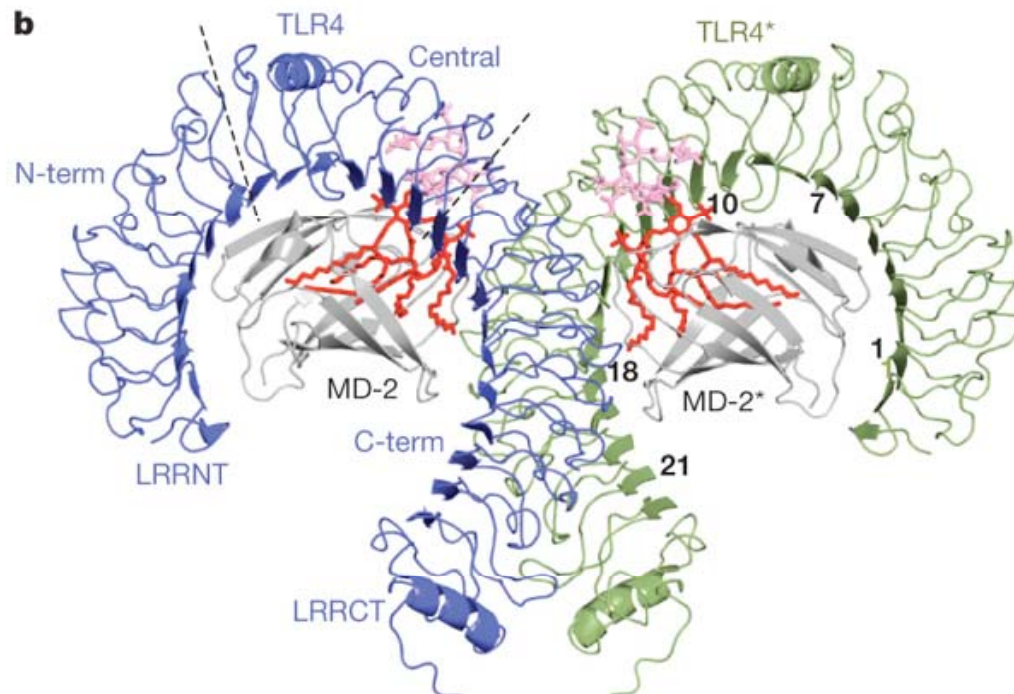
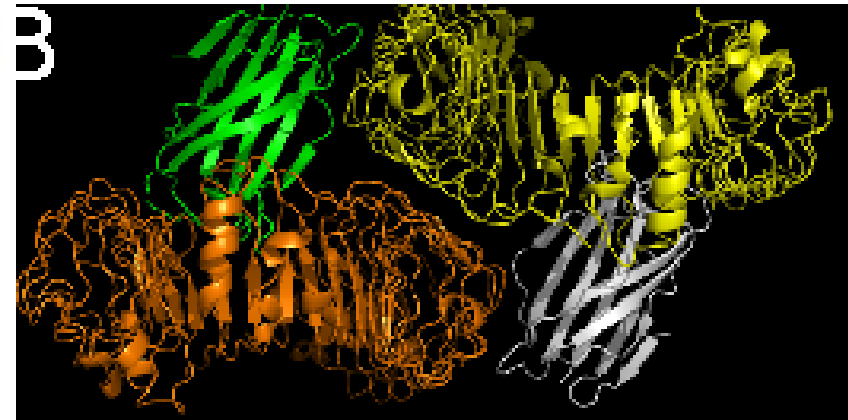
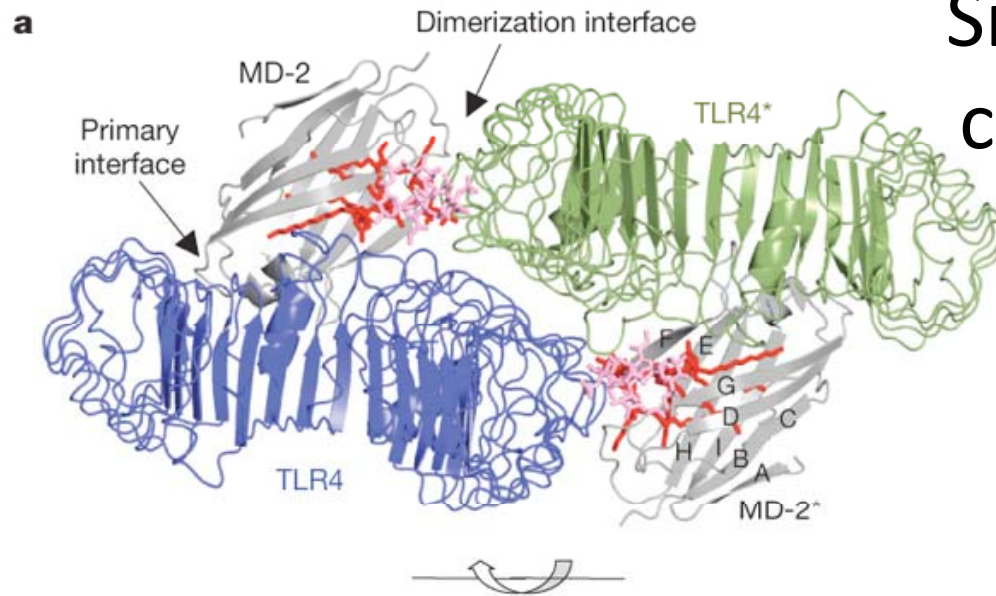
(B-E) Electrostatic surface potentials: human (B), cat (C), horse (D) and mouse (E) proteins.

# TLR4:MD2 interactions

Models of TLR4:MD2 heterodimer (A, B). Surface of TLR4 showing important functional regions based on crystal structures and models (C,E) – white and green (MD2 binding), magenta (TLR4 dimerisation), Blue (equine R385). Surface of MD2 (D, F) with TLR4 binding sites (orange, yellow) overlapping residues 57-66 and 82-89, (magenta)

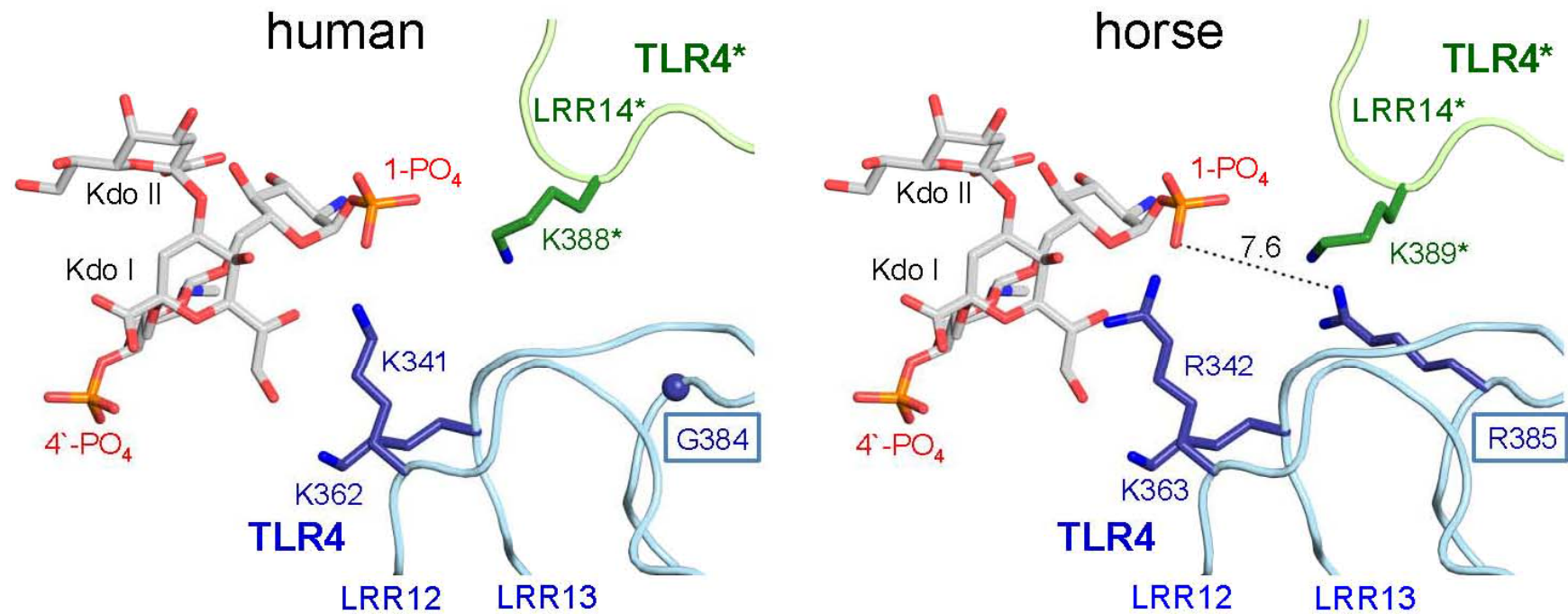


# Similarity of model to crystallised structure

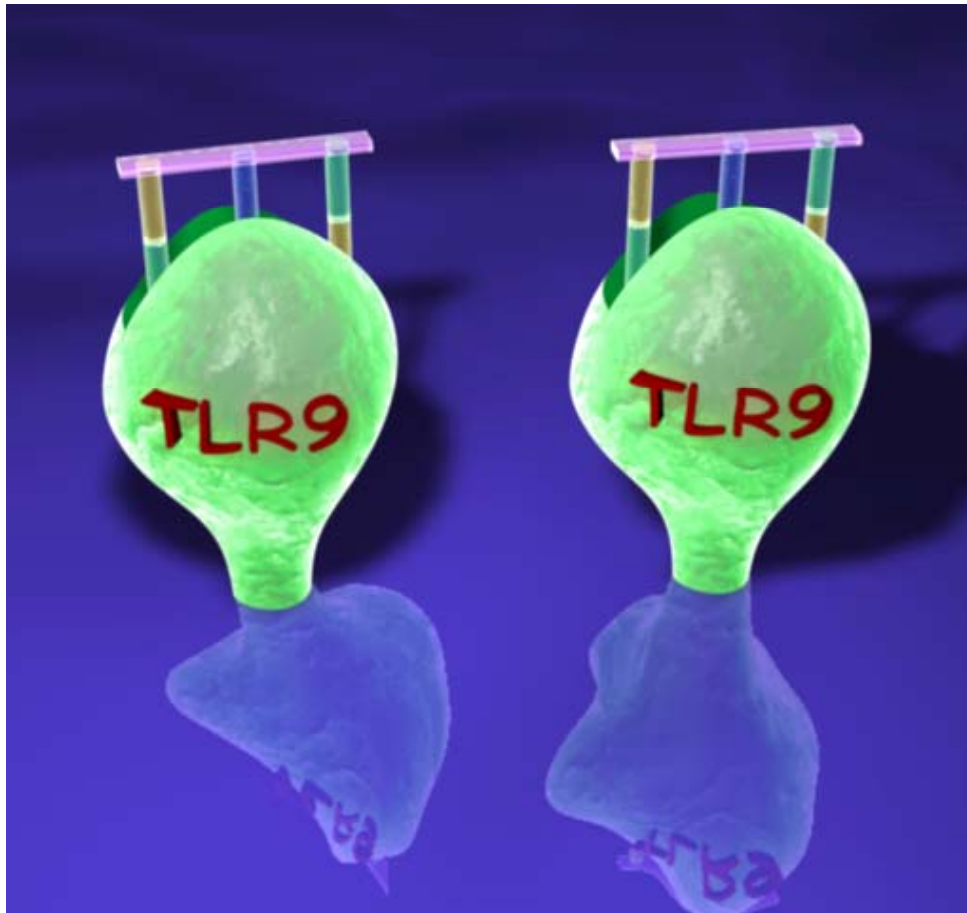




# Importance of R385

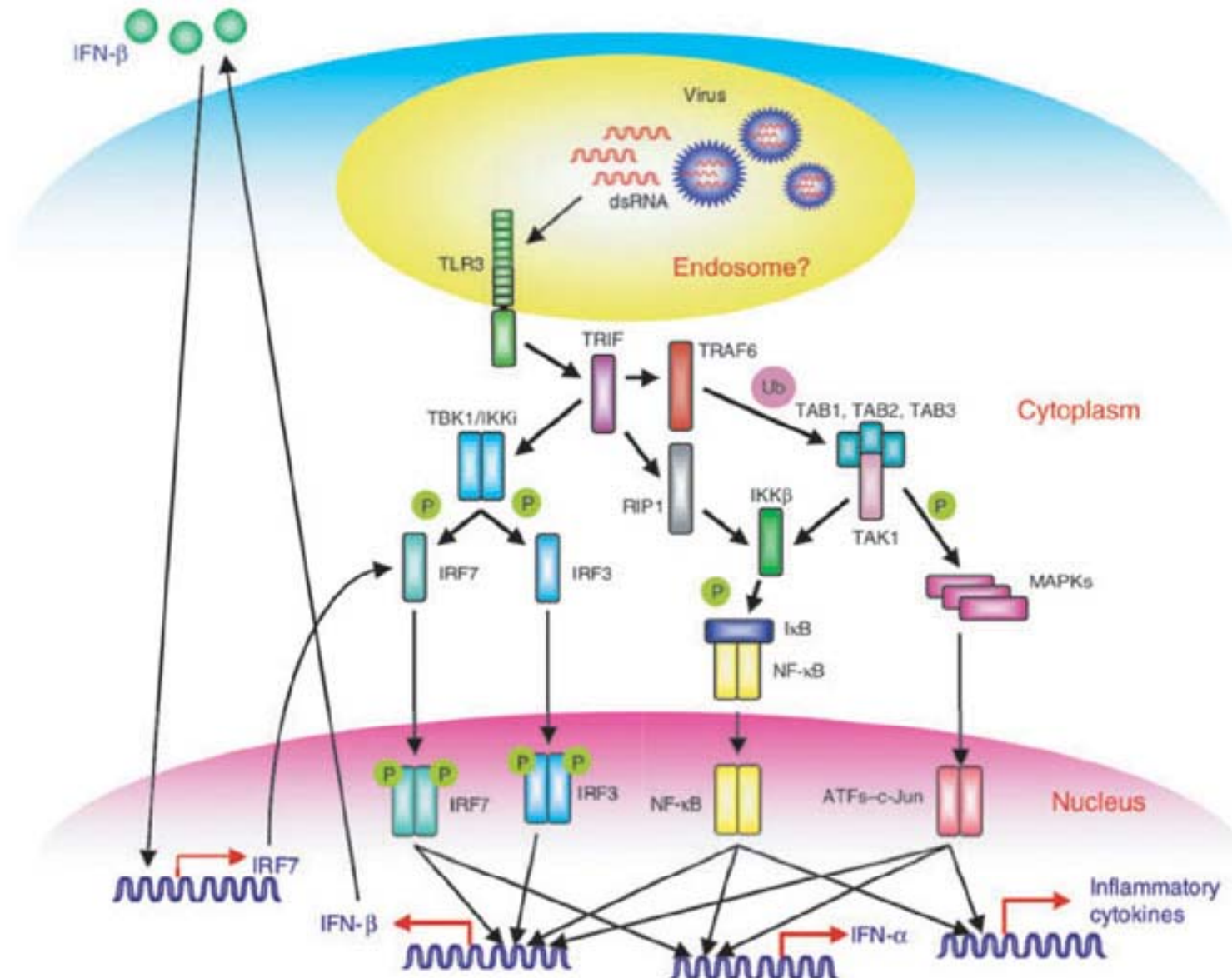


# Other TLRs: RNA and DNA recognition by TLRs 3,7,8, 9



- eg lysis of bacteria by antibiotics releases methylated bacterial DNA
- Bacterial DNA binds to TLR-9
- TLR-9 dimerises and induces release of pro-inflammatory mediators

# Viral recognition by TLRs: TLR3



# Viral recognition by TLRs: 7,8,9

